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THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

Bureau of Statistics of Labor,

EMBRACING THE

ACCOUNT OF ITS OPERATIONS AND INQUIRIES FROM MARCH
1, 1871, TO MARCH 1, 1872.

BOSTON:

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1872.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PART I. INTRODUCTORY AND STATISTICAL :

	Page.
Introduction. Account and method of proceeding,	6-12
Description of Blanks and Classification of Employments,	13-21
Returns to Blank No. 1. Agriculture,	21-47
“ “ “ 2. Commercial,	47 59
“ “ Nos. 3 and 4. Domestic Labor and Woman's Work,	59-118
“ “ No. 5. { Industrial,	118-178
“ “ “ { Mechanical,	179-217
“ “ “ 6. Hours of Labor,	217-251
“ “ “ 8. Cost of Living,	251 257
“ “ “ 9. Workingmen's Statistics,	258-269
“ “ “ “ Extracts from Workingmen's Blank,	270-292
“ “ “ 10. Savings Banks,	293-338
Recapitulation,	338-344

PART II. TESTIMONY AND NARRATIVE :

Visits of Bureau,	344-362
Condition of Operatives in Factory and Manufacturing Towns, . . .	362-401
Chinese Labor,	401-409
Truck System,	409-421
Accidents,	421-431
Strikes,	431-437
Homes of the Working-Classes,	437 443
Schools for Factory Children,	443-446

PART III. ARGUMENT AND RECOMMENDATIONS :

Education,	446-455
Half-Time Schools,	455-466
Unschool'd Children in Massachusetts,	466-468
Purchasing power of Wages,	468-469
“ “ “ in England,	469-500
“ “ “ in Massachusetts,	500-529
Review,	529-538
Conclusions and Recommendations,	538-541

APPENDIX :

	Page
Testimony of Francis Dodge,	544-548
Coöperative Associations in Germany,	548-557
Schools and Instruction in Prussia,	558-565
Labor in Austria and Hungary,	565-568
Truck System in England,	568-579
Strike by Agricultural Laborers in England,	579-580
Note: Cost of Crime,	580

Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

OFFICE OF BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR, }
STATE HOUSE, BOSTON, March 1, 1872. }

HON. HORACE H. COOLIDGE, *President of the Senate.*

SIR:—We beg leave to present the Third Annual Report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, comprising the account of its operations and inquiries for the year between March 1, 1871, and March 1, 1872.

Very respectfully, your obedient servants,

HENRY K. OLIVER, *Chief.*
GEORGE E. McNEILL, *Deputy.*

INTRODUCTION.

On presenting this the Third Report of the Bureau, the attention of the Legislature is respectfully called to the importance and real magnitude of the subject committed to its charge; and this we do irrespective of private considerations, and without either desire or intention to exaggerate the functions of the special service to which we are assigned; for we know, and every observer and reader of the times knows, that no question is so deeply agitating the general mind as that of the relative position of employer and employed, of capital and of labor.

In the United States the question of slavery has been settled by arms; in Brazil, Russia and Siam by imperial edict; and next and now looms up all over the civilized world, inquiry, not into the right of ownership of men, but into the facts and results of such other forms of ownership as, by special methods of business, accomplish the same objects under a milder name.

The great question to be considered is, how to adjust industrial and social relations, so that labor and capital shall become vigorous and productive partners, instead of, as now, unproductive and wasteful opponents; or, in other words, how to make coöperation possible and practicable.

Of the deep interest taken in the present agitation, we have ample proof in the number and variety of letters received from many quarters,—letters of encouragement and inquiry from persons in all professions and trades, all over the country. Long before our Second Report was printed, our list of applications for the number of copies assigned to us (fifteen hundred out of six thousand eight hundred), was filled, and although we were kindly assisted by copies spared to us by members of the legislature, we had to refuse many applicants before three months had expired from its issue.

We have been gratified with the general favor with which the document has been received, and shall endeavor to profit by whatever of criticism it has evoked.

The department is new, and of brief experience in a new field, and its researches are, in this country, of a novel character. Yet the example set in Massachusetts in this branch of statistics, is about to be followed by other States, and one is in contemplation, by the General Government, for the whole country.

One reason out of many, why we refer to this extensive interest in our experimental department, is a hope of inducing the Legislature to direct our Reports to be placed among the regular Public Documents of the Commonwealth, that it may be easy of access to all who are interested in the study of the question. If this were done, we could go to press as fast as our materials were collected, and the legislature would be in possession of our statistics and suggestions at a very much earlier period than heretofore. We endeavored to accomplish this at the last session, and our petition to that effect was placed in the hands of a member of the Senate. It was not, however, presented, but after a few weeks was returned to us with the remark, that after consultation, it had been thought prudent not to bring anything connected with the Bureau before the Legislature, since it might lead to such discussion as would possibly end in its abolishment.

There is another reason why we refer to the interest taken in our labors, and that is, that inasmuch as replies to our inquiries are all voluntary, and due only to the courtesy of respondents, and as, in not a few instances, our Circulars of inquiry have been returned to us wholly unanswered, and occasionally with abruptness of language, whether or not it would be advisable, in view of the conceded importance of this line of research, to confer power upon the Bureau to demand replies, as of right, upon matters within its purview.

The exhaustive thoroughness with which such investigations have been pursued by Parliamentary Commissions in England ; the persistent cleverness and unsparing push, to the minutest detail, with which the questioning of respondents has been carried there ; and the exactness and particularity of the information obtained, would justify our request for more power and better facilities for obtaining information.

In the single matter of the *Truck System*, or the system of paying laborers by orders on stores owned by said laborers' employers, no fewer than forty-five thousand one hundred and

twenty-five questions were asked, and as many replies obtained, as may be seen by examining the two large folio volumes received from London, and now in our office. But with us, with all our efforts, the replies we have been able to obtain upon questions relating to the kind and method of contract with employés, to wages paid and manner of payment, whether in cash or store orders, or partly in each, hours of labor, employment and schooling of children, general condition of operatives, protection against danger from fire, machinery, or belting, have been too scant, often unwillingly given, and not seldom wholly refused.

Only upon full, exact, and exhaustive answers to every question relating to the vast subject of labor, was English legislation founded, and the same will be true of any future legislation that may be attempted here or any where else.

But, if it be said that the State has no right to insist upon replies to questions about private business, let us see to what this denial may lead, and whether such denial might not put the law-making power and the good of the general public, at the mercy of an individual, or company of individuals.

A man enters upon the business of slaughtering animals for the market. Owning in his own right, we will suppose, a sufficient amount of land within the limits of a city, he erects thereon the needed buildings and commences operations. At once the whole neighborhood is filled with fetid and sickening effluvia, and there is peril of wide-spread epidemic. Inquiry by a commission of experts into the origin and spread of disease having been ordered by legislative authority, the owner of these offensive premises, is called upon, and put under a course of questioning. He refuses to make reply, on the plea that the affair is of his own private business, and the public has nothing to do with it. But the commission rightly argue that the good of the general public is paramount to all private considerations, and that therefore the respondent must satisfy their inquiries. The creation of a State Board of Health by the Legislature of Massachusetts, shows that this line of argument is correct, and the power conferred upon that Board shows the resolution and firmness of the intent to protect the general welfare, in spite of alleged private rights.

So too, if in the interest of an individual, a cargo of negroes

should be obtained on the coast of Africa, and be landed in Massachusetts to be employed on the private lands of the owner, or to be employed in his private factory, the law-making power would, beyond question, have the authority, and ought to exercise it, of instituting inquiry into this operation, and of insisting upon the fullest information in the premises. Nor would it make any difference whether such cargo were obtained elsewhere than in Africa, or whether the men were of a lighter shade of coloring, or of another race. Anything that looks in the direction of a renewal of forced labor into this Commonwealth, however gentle may be the first steps, demands investigation. First, among the States in her efforts to abolish such a system, she ought not to be first to permit its renewal in any form.

Now, we believe that the same line of argument may be used in maintaining the right of the State to examine by Commission or Committee, into any matters affecting the industrial and social evils that may imperil the general moral health. In fact, the proof would not be wanting, that inasmuch as moral maladies work greater and more lasting evils than physical, the State should, with the more persistent and thorough research, investigate the causes thereof, nor permit her determination after the facts, to be turned aside for any cause or by any casuistry. Employers themselves, we cannot but think, act with an unwise policy, when they refuse to give information, inasmuch as that very refusal would appear to justify the suspicion that the shrinking indicates a dread of investigation.

The subjects to which, during the past year, we directed our attention, were the condition of wage-laborers, both men and women, their wages, earnings, hours of labor, cost of living, savings, education, moral and physical status, their opportunities for improvement through unions of any variety, coöperative experiments, libraries, reading-rooms, or other intellectual associations, &c., the surroundings of congregated and out-of-door labor, the conveniences or inconveniences of their working places and homes, and the employment and schooling of children in factories, stores, shops, or on the street.

Attention has also been given to the influence of different occupations upon health and morals,—to strikes, their causes and results,—to the Truck System, to Factory life here and in Eng-

land, the story of workingmen's lives by themselves, their arguments upon hours of labor, poverty, etc., and to the experiment with Chinese laborers. Upon this latter subject, the reticence of the employer circumscribes the information within very narrow limits. To this has been added a brief history of the purchasing power of wages in England from the year 1300, and in Massachusetts from its settlement, with comments upon the same, recommendations, and an appendix containing a brief description of labor abroad, and the English Truck System.

We have continued our method of asking for statistical information by the use of blank circulars, and in addition have visited many places and made examination into the condition of employés and of the establishments in which they work.

The following matters relating to the employments and condition of working women were specially assigned to a female assistant for investigation, viz. : the number of occupation in which they are engaged ; their hours of labor ; home-life ; regularity of employment ; number of weeks of work during a year ; comparative intelligence ; examination of their boarding-houses ; amusements ; health of their special occupations, &c. ; disabilities of each class of women-workers as compared with men at the same occupation ; merit or demerit of institutions for women, such as homes or lodging-houses ; free intelligence offices ; advertisements for working-women ; frauds of the same, other than those practised upon men ; guerilla merchants, so called ; Jews' shops ; sewing-machine frauds, etc.

From the United States' Census of 1870, the Bureau has prepared a complete index of all the employments in Massachusetts, and has so arranged the details as to give, at a glance, the number of persons employed, the average wages, yearly earnings, amount of capital invested, and the total product of each branch of industry in the Commonwealth.

The following were our expenses for the past year :—

Assistants and their travel,	\$3,218 15
Stationery and blank books,	234 83
Witnesses,	119 30
Printing blanks and circulars,	691 34
Newspapers and pathfinders,	35 50
Reporting,	220 37

Postage,	\$619 46
Travel of Chief,	356 69
Travel of Deputy,	293 41
Expressage,	63 38
<hr/>	
Total,	\$5,852 43

With so small a sum at our disposal, it has not been possible to canvass the State with more than a limited amount of completeness, and we respectfully solicit that enlargement of means that may insure a wider range over an almost limitless field of inquiry.

Believing that the three Reports now issued have given, so far as wages and earnings are concerned, a tolerably satisfactory picture of the means and status of the wage-laborers of Massachusetts, the Bureau will, in further research into these particulars, take notice of such changes as may occur therein, and will direct its inquiries into regions of investigation yet unexplored.

The field is so vast that its boundaries are well-nigh inaccessible; but yet, valuable information may be gathered up that will help to modify, improve, and reform public sentiment, and make whatever of legislation may be deemed necessary, to be wise, practical and effective; so that our State, cured of its acknowledged maladies, may be in reality a community of common interests, and a true Commonwealth.

We are most happy to be able to record that the exposure of the condition of the Tenement Houses of Boston, in our preceding Reports, sharply awakened public interest, and that the ample corroboration of all we said, followed and endorsed as it was by the public press, induced action on the part of the municipal authorities and private individuals, as well as the establishment of a coöperative association for the building of proper houses and the improvement of old ones, though we are compelled to say that the alterations in the laws by the Legislature of 1871, seriously impaired its usefulness, and that these houses continue to be a disgrace to the City and State, and to the civilization of which we boast. This law should be applicable throughout the State.

An agitation in favor of Half-Time Schools has also been

started, and in many places public sentiment has forced the employer to conform to the law.

We are also informed, by employers and employed, that the history of the strikes in Massachusetts, given in the Report of 1871, tended to moderate the bitterness of feeling heretofore existing in some instances, and it is heartily hoped that in cases of differences hereafter occurring, resort will be had to the vastly better remedy of conciliation and arbitration. This has produced the best results in England, while in France, under the *Counseils de Prud' Hommes*, a body of men organized for the settlement of disputes between workmen and masters, a real, practical and permanent good has been effected. So, too, wherever it has been tried here, it has been found an infinitely better method than either strikes or lockouts; as much better as peace is better than war, and an amicable discussion about mutual alleged grievances, better than words of anger and deeds of violence.

Another step in the right direction has been taken by the Treasurers of the mills at Lowell in prolonging the time allowed for dinner from three-fourths of an hour to an hour, while at Lawrence the day's work on Saturday terminates at 2 o'clock, though the recent accident, *occurring at 8 o'clock, P. M.*, in one of the mills in that place, whereby a boy of 13 lost his life, intimates that the Saturday half day is made up by working extra hours per day on other days of the week.

In our investigations we have studiously avoided all extravagant statements from either side. That errors may appear, is possible; but we have carefully examined the returns forwarded us, and, whenever a statement seemed strange or unmeaning, we have endeavored, by correspondence, to find the exact truth. As heretofore, we have heard both sides to every question before deciding, not attempting to present a theory, but to establish facts.

We ask a careful examination of the whole subject, by the legislature and the people, believing that such examination will result in legislation that shall prevent the farther growth of evils that will otherwise endanger, if not destroy, the only government of the people, for the people, and by the people.

PART I.—STATISTICAL.

INTRODUCTORY.

In presenting the statistical part of our Report, we wish to call attention to the fact that every branch of labor was included in our system of investigation; and although the returns do not represent all of the establishments in which persons are employed, yet coming, as they do, from all the different counties, and a large majority of the towns, in the Commonwealth, we believe they represent the true condition of the wage-labor classes, as far as their condition can be represented by a picture of their wages, earnings, expenses, savings, or debt. The following table gives the blanks used, number sent and returned, towns addressed, and towns heard from:—

TABLE OF RETURNS.

NAME OF BLANK.	Blanks Sent.	Blanks Returned.	Towns Addressed.	Towns heard from.
1. Agriculture,	715	255	297	174
2. Fisheries,*	120	23	14	10
3. Working-women,*	1,323	1,128	76	31
4. Employers of Working-women,*				
5. General Wages,	2,587	564	240	159
6. Hours of Labor,	31	10	25	9
7. Miscellaneous,	—	—	—	—
8. Cost of Living,	15	12	10	7
9. Working-men,	181	98	72	43
10. Savings Banks,	140	71	97	54

Blanks 1 and 9 were similar to those of the last year on the same subject, No. 1 having six additional questions; Nos. 2 and 7 were blanks remaining over from last year; the others were all new, and with the exception of No. 5, all related to special subjects. The names and addresses of parties to whom Nos. 1, 2, 4 and 5 were sent, were obtained from schedules 3 and 4 of the last United States Census Returns (1870).

The difficulty of obtaining the names of working-women to whom Blank No. 3 might be sent, was so great, that the blank was principally used by our assistant in obtaining the facts

* These figures include visits made by our assistants.

detailed under Class 3. The difficulties connected with Blank No. 9, were spoken of in a former report, and we would again call attention to the fact that the responses to these blanks are all from the more intelligent and better paid employés. Blank No. 6 was sent in response to answers to question No. 11 in Blank No. 5. No. 7 was for the use of assistants, and No. 10 was addressed to all the Savings Banks in the State.

The discrepancy between the sum of the totals in the tables is owing to the fact that some returns gave no answer to the question involved; as, for instance, Table No. 1, Boots and Shoes, Office No. 578, the numbers of native and foreign are not returned. This, of course, would make the united columns less than the grand total. This rule is true, also, in case women or children are employed in industries where no column is allowed for the number so employed, or their wages. The totals are totals of columns, invariably.

It must be observed, further, that the averages are averages of returns, and are obtained by adding the column and dividing by the number of returns in that column.

The average earnings and wages to each person employed, is obtained by dividing the total wages by the average number employed, minus the time lost by sickness and stoppage of work.

It will be seen that in some cases, as in Office No. 521, the average to each person employed is greater than the highest average wages paid. This may be owing to the fact, that in some cases the total wages include the salaries of officers, clerks, etc., and in other cases, that the average given in the first column of wages may be lower than that earned by the larger number of men employed, as the wages were, of necessity, obtained by the old method of averages, rather than the method adopted in Blank No. 4, described further on.

The actual average earnings and wages, to each person employed, present the results in the best light, for they cannot be smaller, but may, and often are, larger than the actual facts would warrant. The method of obtaining this and the actual earnings to each man, woman, young person and child, in each employment, will be found further on.* We have described this process in full, not only that the legislature and all readers

* See Index.

may understand the relation of the figures to each other, but because vastly different results can often be obtained from the same statistics.

The classification of employments, adopted last year, has been improved so as not to be as arbitrary in its arrangement, and is made to cover nearly all the occupations of the State. An effort has been made to condense returns, and to present, as far as possible, the facts in tabular form. Owing to the different forms of conducting business, the order of classification will sometimes be destroyed, but it was unavoidable without multiplying tables.

CLASSIFICATION OF EMPLOYMENTS,

With number of Blanks sent out and returned.

CLASS I.—AGRICULTURE.

CLASSIFICATION.	Blanks sent.	Blanks returned.
DIVISION I. DAIRY,	77	14
II. GARDEN,	54	9
III. GENERAL FARMING,	554	222
IV. NURSERIES,	12	3
V. STOCK,	9	4
VI. TOBACCO,.	9	3

CLASS II.—COMMERCIAL.

DIVISION I.—FISHERIES,		} 120	23
SUB-DIVISION 1. Cod,			
2. Mackerel,			
3. Shore,			
4. Whale,			
DIVISION II.—LAND TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION.*			
SUB-DIVISION 1. Coach and Omnibus Lines, . . .			
2. Express Routes and Teaming, . . .			
3. Hack and Livery Service, . . .			
4. Horse Railroads,			
5. Steam Railroads,			
DIVISION III.—WATER TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION.*			
SUB-DIVISION 1. Ferry Boats,			
2. Sailing Vessels,			
3. Steam Vessels,			

* Obtained by personal inquiry.

Classification of Employments—Continued.

CLASS III.—DOMESTIC LABOR AND WOMAN'S WORK.

CLASSIFICATION.		Blanks sent.	Blanks returned.
DIVISION I.—DOMESTIC.*			
SUB-DIVISION	1. House Work,		
	2. Hotel Work,		
	3. Miscellaneous,		
DIVISION II.—STORE WORK.*			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Dry and Fancy Goods,		
	2. Saloons, etc.,		
DIVISION III.—MANUFACTORIES.*			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Clothing,		
	2. Factories,		
	3. Fancy Articles,		
DIVISION IV.—PROFESSIONAL, ETC.*			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Artists, etc.,		
	2. Teachers, etc.,		
DIVISION V.—MISCELLANEOUS.*			

CLASS IV.—INDUSTRIAL.

DIVISION I.—APPAREL.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Boots and Shoes,	599	73
	2. Cloaks and Dress-making,	12	0
	3. Clothing,	86	6
	4. Corsets and Hoop Skirts,	4	0
	5. Furs,	1	0
	6. Gloves,	2	0
	7. Hair,	1	0
	8. Hats and Caps,	4	1
	9. Hosiery and Knit Goods,	20	1
	10. Ladies' Garments and wear,	10	1
	11. Laundries,	1	1
	12. Millinery,	1	0
	13. Neck-stocks and Ties,	1	0
	14. Palm Leaf Goods,	1	0
	15. Shirts and Shirt Bosoms,	8	0
	16. Shoe Strings,	2	0
	17. Straw Goods,	23	1
DIVISION II.—CHEMICAL MIXTURES AND OILS.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Acid,	0	0
	2. Blacking and Blueing, etc.,	0	0
	3. Candles and Soaps,	4	1
	4. Chemicals and Chemists,	4	3
	5. Cosmetics and Perfumery,†	6	0

* Obtained mostly by personal inquiry.

† See also Class III.

*Classification of Employments—Continued.*CLASS IV—*Continued.*

CLASSIFICATION.		Blanks sent.	Blanks returned.
SUB-DIVISION	6. Dyes and Colors,	1	1
	7. Essences and Extracts, etc.,	0	0
	8. Explosives,	3	3
	9. Gas,	10	6
	10. Glue and Glue-stock,	4	0
	11. Gums,	1	0
	12. Isinglass,	2	0
	13. Leads, Paints, etc.,	1	1
	14. Oils,	7	2
	15. Phosphates,	1	0
DIVISION III.—FOOD AND ITS ACCOMPANIMENTS.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Ale and Beer, &c.,	7	2
	2. Bakeries,	16	3
	3. Butchers,	1	0
	4. Canned Goods,	2	0
	5. Chocolate,	4	0
	6. Cigars,*	15	8
	7. Confectionery,	6	1
	8. Flour and Meal,	5	3
	9. Grist-Mills,	3	1
	10. Ice,	2	0
	11. Soda and similar Drinks,	3	0
	12. Spice,	1	1
	13. Sugar Refining,	3	1
DIVISION IV.—EARTHS AND MINERALS.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Blacklead Crucibles,	1	0
	2. Bricks,	48	3
	3. Clay, Peat, Sand,	2	0
	4. Earthen and Stone Ware,	1	0
	5. Fire-Bricks,	2	2
	6. Glass,	10	1
	7. Hoosac Tunnel,	1	0
	8. Iron Mining,	2	0
	9. Lime and Plaster,	4	1
	10. Marble,	16	4
	11. Potteries,	3	0
	12. Soapstone,	1	1
	13. Stone Quarries,	15	3
	14. Stone Work,	31	6
DIVISION V.—FANCY ARTICLES, JEWELRY WARE, &c.*			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Base Balls,	1	0
	2. Buttons,	6	2
	3. Combs,	7	2
	4. Fancy Goods,	1	0

* See also Class III.

Classification of Employments—Continued.

CLASS IV.—Continued.

CLASSIFICATION.		Blanks sent.	Blanks returned.
SUB-DIVISION	5. Field and Parlor Games,	1	0
	6. Jewelry,	30	3
	7. Pocket-books,	5	0
	8. Silver-smiths,	4	0
	9. Toys,	1	1
	10. Watches, &c.,	3	0
DIVISION VI.—HIDES AND LEATHER.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Tanners and Curriers,	67	7
	2. Leather, Morocco and Skins, . .	50	5
DIVISION VII.—HORSE AND TRAVEL SUPPLIES.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Carpet and Travelling Bags,* . .	0	0
	2. Harness Making,	2	0
	3. Hames and Horse Collars, . . .	0	0
	4. Horse Clothing,	0	0
	5. Horse Pads and Shoes,	0	0
	6. Horse Shoeing,	0	0
	7. Livery Stables,	0	0
	8. Saddlery,	2	0
	9. Trunks,	4	0
	10. Whips,	3	1
DIVISION VIII.—PAPER, ETC.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Paper,	60	18
	2. Paper Bags,	1	1
	3. Paper Boxes,	12	2
	4. Paper Collars, etc.,	3	1
DIVISION IX.—PRINTING AND ITS COLLATERALS.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Book Binding,	2	0
	2. Electro and Stereotyping, . . .	2	1
	3. Engraving,	3	0
	4. Lithography,	3	1
	5. Music Printing,	1	0
	6. Printing and Publishing, . . .	37	5
	7. Stationery Manufacturing, . . .	1	1
	8. Type Foundries,	1	1
DIVISION X.—TEXTILE PRODUCTS, ETC.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Bleaching, Coloring and Dyeing, .	7	0
	2. Braid, etc.,	4	2
	3. Carpets, etc.,	7	1
	4. Cordage and Rope,	3	1
	5. Cotton Goods,	91	18
	6. Elastic Goods,	8	3
	7. Flax and Jute,	2	2
	8. Hair Felt,	2	1

* See also Class III.

*Classification of Employments—Continued.*CLASS IV.—*Concluded.*

CLASSIFICATION.	Blanks sent.	Blanks returned.
SUB-DIVISION 9. Nets and Seine,	2	1
10. Print Cloths and Goods,	10	6
11. Quilts,	1	0
12. Rubber Fabrics and Goods,	3	2
13. Silk,	6	1
14. Thread, Twine, etc.,	14	2
15. Wool,	5	1
16. Woollens,	128	33
17. Yarn,	10	0

CLASS V.—MECHANICAL.

DIVISION I.—BOATS AND SHIPS.		
SUB-DIVISION 1. Anchors,	1	1
2. Boats and Dories,	1	0
3. Pumps and Blocks,	1	0
4. Riggers,	1	1
5. Sail-making,	1	0
6. Ship Builders and Joiners,	20	3
DIVISION II.—BUILDINGS, THEIR CONSTRUCTION AND FINISH.		
SUB-DIVISION 1. Blinds, Doors and Sashes,	16	3
2. Brick and Stone Masons,	20	2
3. Builders,	31	4
4. Carpenters,	62	7
5. Carvers,	1	0
6. Gas-Fitting,	2	0
7. Moulders,	3	0
8. Painters,	14	3
9. Paper Hangers,	1	0
10. Planing Mills,	7	3
11. Plasterers,	1	0
12. Plumbers,	6	1
13. Roofers,	4	1
DIVISION III.—FURNITURE.		
SUB-DIVISION 1. Billiard Tables,	1	0
2. Cabinet Makers,	13	3
3. Chairs,	26	6
4. Furniture,	50	6
5. Musical Instruments,	26	7
6. Picture Frames,	2	2
7. Upholstering,	5	1

Classification of Employments—Continued.

CLASS V.—Continued.

CLASSIFICATION.		Blanks sent.	Blanks returned.
DIVISION IV.—IMPLEMENTS, INSTRUMENTS AND TOOLS.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Agricultural Implements, &c., . . .	10	4
	2. Brooms and Brushes, . . .	7	1
	3. Cutlery, . . .	7	4
	4. Fire Arms, . . .	7	3
	5. Machinists' Tools, . . .	5	2
	6. Tools, . . .	4	2
	7. Vises, . . .	2	1
	8. Philosophical Instruments, . . .	1	1
DIVISION V.—MACHINERY AND MACHINE SUPPLIES.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Belting, . . .	1	1
	2. Bobbins, Shuttles, &c., . . .	9	3
	3. Boilers and Engines, . . .	11	4
	4. Card Clothing, . . .	4	1
	5. Copper and Steam Pumps, . . .	1	0
	6. Locomotives, . . .	3	0
	7. Machine Makers, . . .	41	17
	8. Machine Repairers, &c., . . .	32	11
	9. Needles for Sewing Machines, . . .	1	1
	10. Patterns, . . .	1	1
	11. Roll Covering, . . .	2	1
	12. Sewing Machines, . . .	4	1
	13. Water Wheels, . . .	3	1
DIVISION VI.—METAL WORK.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Blacksmiths, . . .	5	1
	2. Brass and Copper Work, . . .	9	0
	3. Britannia, . . .	1	0
	4. Foundries, . . .	51	17
	5. Gas Machines, . . .	3	2
	6. Hardware and Small Notions, . . .	10	3
	7. Iron Work, . . .	28	3
	8. Locks and Locksmiths, . . .	3	0
	9. Safes, . . .	1	0
	10. Sheet-iron, Lead and Zinc, . . .	2	1
	11. Steam-Heating Apparatus, . . .	2	0
	12. Stoves and Furnaces, . . .	8	3
	13. Tacks, Nails and Spikes, . . .	13	8
	14. Tin Ware and Tin Plate, . . .	7	2
	15. Wire, . . .	4	1
DIVISION VII.—VEHICLES.			
SUB-DIVISION	1. Car and Coach-making, . . .	5	0
	2. Carriage-making, . . .	66	11
	3. Sleighs, . . .	1	0
	4. Wagons, . . .	3	1
	5. Wheels, . . .	5	2

*Classification of Employments—Continued.*CLASS V.—*Concluded.*

CLASSIFICATION.						Blanks sent.	Blanks returned.
DIVISION VIII—WOOD WORK.							
SUB-DIVISION	1.	Boxes,	.	.	.	18	3
	2.	Coffins and their Trimmings,	.	.	.	4	1
	3.	Coopers,	.	.	.	8	1
	4.	Cork,	.	.	.	1	1
	5.	Lasts,	.	.	.	3	1
	6.	Lumber,	.	.	.	17	10
	7.	Matches,	.	.	.	2	1
	8.	Pumps,	.	.	.	1	1
	9.	Saw-Mills,	.	.	.	7	1
	10.	Wood Work—Miscellaneous,	.	.	.	2	2
DIVISION IX.							
Miscellaneous,	190	17

CLASS I. AGRICULTURE.

The blank used to procure the following facts, contained twenty-one questions, the first fifteen of which were the same as those of last year. We give a brief summary of them in this place, to enable the reader to understand better the scope of the subject, as well as to comprehend the answers and the inferences drawn therefrom.

The questions covered the subject of wages,—employment of women and children in farm work,—opportunities for schooling,—working months and hours per day of men-laborers,—employment in other months,—change in nationality,—social and educational advantages,—effect of foreign labor upon the results of farm operations,—influence and extent of agricultural machinery,—increase or decrease of skilled labor.

The remaining questions will be given in pages further on.

From the nature of our replies, we are unable to give the returns according to classification.

The last Report of the Bureau has been pronounced, by some agriculturists, less favorable to the agricultural industry of the State than justice required, yet the deductions it presented were drawn from answers of respondents to letters of inquiry addressed to practical farmers and other prominent individuals familiar with agriculture, in different parts of the State, to which definite and comprehensive replies were requested.

The general bearing of that Report is attributable, therefore, to the information furnished by respondents who might be reasonably supposed to be competent, and personally interested to communicate only what might be substantiated by facts within their observation or experience. Subsequent inquiries and investigations have served to prove the correctness of those deductions, and in confirmation of them we present the subjoined statistics gathered from the several censuses of the United States for the years 1850, 1860, and 1870.

Different estimates have been made of the quantity of breadstuffs which may be consumed annually by each individual in any given community.

It was stated by the late Governor Andrew, in his address to the legislature of 1864, that, in England, this quantity was computed to be one quarter, or *eight* bushels. But as the people of the United States probably consume more fish and animal food, that quantity might be reduced to *seven* bushels, which would allow about a pound loaf of bread to each person per diem.*

At this estimate, the deficiency in the quantity of breadstuffs required by the people of the State, at the several periods of comparison, may be seen in the subjoined table.

TABLE NO. 1.—POPULATION AND PRODUCTION.

YEARS.	Population.	Bushels of wheat required.	Bushels of wheat produced.	Deficiency.	Per cent. of deficit.
1850, . . .	994,514	6,961,598	2,963,617	3,997,981	57.4
1860, . . .	1,231,066	8,617,462	2,788,132	5,829,330	67.5
1870, . . .	1,488,055	10,116,385	1,729,736	8,386,649	83.

From our investigations, and the combined information of intelligent and experienced bakers, we are led to believe that this estimate is too large. We therefore reduce the quantity to *five* bushels, allowing three-quarters of a common loaf of bread to each person per day. At this estimate, the deficiency in the

* Five bushels of wheat, each weighing 60 pounds, make *one* barrel of flour of 196 pounds; and one barrel of flour will yield 250 loaves of bread, each of *one* pound weight. Allowing, therefore, one barrel of flour, or 250 *one*-pound loaves, per person per year, would give each person *two-thirds* of a loaf per day. Taking families generally, with their adult and young, one barrel of flour per person per year is a fair allowance. Consequently the number of *bushels of wheat* necessary to supply the population of the State with flour bread must be *five* times the population.

quantity required by the population is still very great, as the subjoined table will show.

Y E A R S .	Population.	Bushels of wheat re- quired.	Bushels of wheat pro- duced.	Deficiency.	Per cent.
1850, . . .	994,514	4,972,570	2,963,617	2,008,953	42.4
1860, . . .	1,231,066	6,155,330	2,788,132	3,367,198	54.7
1870, . . .	1,488,055	7,440,275	1,729,736	5,710,539	78.

We are confident that a like comparison in relation to other agricultural productions, and to the live stock of the farm, would exhibit a similar result in nearly every item. Nor will the admitted fact of large increase in the

E R R A T A .

Page 23, line 13 from bottom, for 1,080,231, *read* 1,980,231.

Page 24, line 14 from top, for 29 per cent., *read* 42 per cent.

Tobacco *increased* from 138,246 lbs. in 1850 to 3,233,198 lbs. in 1860, and to 7,312,885 lbs. in 1870! The increase of orchard and market-garden productions can only be inferred from the great increase of their respective values. The value of orchard productions *increased* from \$463,995 in 1850, to \$925,519 in 1860, and to \$939,854 in 1870. The value of market-garden productions *increased* from \$600,020 in 1850, to \$1,397,623 in 1860, and to \$1,080,231 in 1870.

The value of live stock *increased* from \$9,647,710 in 1850 to \$12,737,744 in 1860 and to \$17,049,228 in 1870.

Potatoes—Irish and sweet—*decreased* in quantity from 3,585,384 bushels in 1850 to 3,205,517 bushels in 1860 and to 3,026,363 bushels in 1870.

Butter *increased* from 8,071,370 lbs. in 1850 to 8,297,936 lbs. in 1860 and *decreased* to 6,559,161 lbs. in 1870.

Cheese *decreased* from 7,088,142 lbs. in 1850 to 5,294,090 lbs. in 1860, and to 2,245,873 lbs. in 1870.

Hay, which is commonly supposed to have increased continuously and very largely, *increased* from 651,807 tons in 1850 to 665,361 tons in 1860, and *decreased* to 597,455 tons in 1870.

The cash value of farms *increased* from \$109,076,347 in 1850, to \$123,255,948 in 1860, and *decreased* to \$116,432,784 in 1870.

The following *decreases* in percentage are shown by the U. S. census of 1870. In acres Improved Land, 20 per cent. ; Unimproved, 15. Cash value of Farms, 5. Horses, 14. Milch Cows, 20. Oxen, 36. Other Cattle, 17. Sheep, 30. Swine, 33. Bushels Wheat, 71. Rye, 38. Indian Corn, 35. Oats, 32. Buckwheat, 52. Pounds Wool, 18. Bushels Potatoes, 5. Peas and Beans, 45. Pounds Butter, 20. Cheese, 57. Tons Hay, 10. Clover Seed, 80. Grass Seed, 90. Pounds Hops, 44. Flax, 463. Maple Sugar, 60. Honey, 57. Bees-wax, 60.

Other *increases* were, Cash value of Machinery, 42. Live Stock, 25. Small Fruits and Market-Garden crops, 29 per cent.

The increased quantity of tobacco, and value of orchard and market-garden productions, will account, in great measure, for the decrease of cereals and other agricultural productions. And a large decrease in the numbers of live stock has undoubtedly tended to the same effect, by diminishing the quantity of animal manure to be used on the farm. But those productions of which the quantity and value have been most largely *increased*, are to be found chiefly in particular localities and within a limited extent ; and, although they have added to the wealth of individuals and the prosperity of agriculture, in those localities, the conclusion that the agriculture of the State in general has declined, must be assented to as a just one.

It may be thought, and it has been said, that the statistics given in the censuses of the United States are inaccurate, and cannot be relied upon for precise information upon the subject. A similar objection may be made to the statistics in the several reports of the domestic industry of our own State. If such is the fact in either case, it presents a valid argument for the permanent establishment of a National Bureau of Statistics, and the enactment of laws to enforce the discovery and accurate exhibition of all the productions of labor throughout the Union.

For the purpose and with the hope of obtaining definite and comprehensive information, blanks were addressed to the Assessors of every town, to practical farmers and other prominent individuals in the principal agricultural sections of the State,

with the request that full and precise replies might be seasonably returned. It was thought desirable, also, that an assistant from this office should visit and hold free communication with farmers and farm-laborers, in order to enlarge and corroborate information that might be otherwise obtained. This plan, however, from its slow operation and frequent delays, was necessarily abandoned. Our reliance for needed information has been limited, therefore, to the replies of respondents to our blanks, and to such investigations as we have been personally able to make.

The blanks referred to were distributed and replies to them received according to the subjoined table.

TABLE NO. 2.—RETURNS.

COUNTIES.	Blanks sent.	Blanks returned.
Barnstable,	10	6
Berkshire,	66	30
Bristol,	41	20
Essex,	80	29
Franklin,	49	24
Hampden,	49	29
Hampshire,	48	20
Middlesex,	137	56
Norfolk,	56	29
Plymouth,	39	12
Suffolk,	9	2
Worcester,	131	38
	715	295

One of the first and most important considerations with every farmer, is the cost and kind of labor he must employ. If the cost is beyond his means, or the efficiency of the labor inadequate to the desired cultivation of his farm, his operations must be necessarily restricted, and his crops correspondingly limited. A large number of our respondents assert that the cost of farm labor has greatly diminished the usual breadth of cultivation in the State, or entirely changed the ordinary purpose of it, and that the only farm-labor to be generally obtained is inferior to that which was everywhere abundant in former times. The superior advantages of mercantile life, the great increase of manufacturing and mechanical establishments, and

the more fertile and easily cultivated lands of the Western States, all offering the inducements of more favorable prospects, higher wages, less laborious employment, and earlier withdrawal from labor, have removed from our farms nearly all the sons of farmers and a large proportion of the most intelligent and efficient farm laborers. It may be questionable whether the cost of labor is so great a check upon farm operations as the character and efficiency of the laborers employed, who, however willing to work, are chiefly foreigners without any education, and wholly unaccustomed to our methods of farming.

A respondent from Berkshire County writes:—

“The farmers of our town do not operate extensively, and many of them do their work without help, except in the haying season. The land has diminished in productiveness within the last twenty-five years. Many farmers have sold most of their woodland, including maple orchards, and some their farms, to the iron manufacturers for the purpose of coal, and many of these farms have been afterwards purchased at low prices by foreigners, of whom a considerable portion make unthrifty farmers. Many of our most thrifty and energetic farmers and young men are every year migrating, mostly to the better farming States of the West. These changes have operated unfavorably upon the results of farming operations, and upon the productive industry, the wealth, and the social condition and standing of our town.”

A respondent from Bristol County writes:—

“Wages have doubled within twenty-five years, and good hands are hard to be hired. In my judgment, neither the introduction of machinery, nor anything done by farmers, has affected the price of labor. The price of labor has been made by our manufacturers, and farmers have been controlled by that price rather than controlled it. The effect has been to contract farming and concentrate it around cities and villages, where the raising of small fruits and vegetables can be made part of the business. And here the hardest working men and women are the owners of the farms—working from twelve to fourteen hours per day. I think the average of them keep just about square with the world and nothing more, while a very few may make a living and save the interest on the value of their farms. There may be a dispute about the cause of this, but the fact seems to be that farm-laborers can now earn twice as much money in the same time and buy a farm for one-half the price com-

pared with twenty-five years ago. I think they earn more, spend more, save less, and are less inclined to have a home of their own, because they can most of them live in somebody's house where everything is provided for them."

Another respondent from Bristol County writes:—

"Having been born and brought up in this town, I pretend to have a knowledge of all its parts, and I do not think there are ten farmers in the town that get their living off their farms alone."

From Essex County, one writes concerning farm-laborers: "Irishmen—even the best of them, need, and seem to expect, special supervision."

One from Middlesex County writes:—

"Farming cannot be made to pay with the talent now employed in it. Not a man in town gets a living for his family by exclusively cultivating the land. It is impossible to keep help. They want the highest-priced mechanics' wages."

Yet another, from the same county, writes:—

"The ignorance and incompetency of farm laborers has hindered the progress of farming. The cultivation of the soil has not been so profitable. * * * There is a general feeling that the price of labor bears hard on the farming interest, and many farmers are discouraged. There is a continual and a growing disposition to sell to those who have other resources than what the farm can furnish, to *keep it up*, as the saying is. This is owing, in a large measure, to the kind of help the farmer must take, and the price to be paid for it."

A market gardener from Norfolk County writes, concerning farm-laborers:—

"They take so little interest in their work, and many of them change their employment so often, as to be novices in whatever they undertake."

Another from the same county writes:—

"I know of very few farmers who are making more than a living at the business. Those owning small farms are often obliged to work at some mechanical business in winter in order to get through the year without going behind hand, and being obliged to sell their

homes to pay debt or taxes. Indeed most of our farmers simply make their farms places to live upon, to keep a cow and a horse, while the money income is derived from some other source. The few large farmers we have, are nearly all dealers in wood and lumber and get most of their income from the woodland."

From Worcester County one writes:—

"The unsatisfactory character of farm-help has compelled farmers to either raise only crops requiring least labor, or to take pains to spend the labor more profitably."

Yet another from the same county writes:—

"Almost all our old farmers have left their farms and moved into the villages. What has driven them off is high taxes, the high price of labor, and a general deterioration of the soil. I have owned and carried on a large farm for the last twenty-five years, and have hired a great many laborers to work on the farm and on the public roads. It was all native help until about twenty-two years ago, when that began to disappear; until, at this time, there are very few of our countrymen that work out on the farm for a living. They have gone into shops or stores, and many have removed to the West. Almost all our farms situated away from villages are being sold and going into the hands of the Irish. For instance: a man finds his farm will not pay. He first sells off his wood and timber, and then his farm—generally to some Irishman on a long credit. The Irish when they buy our lands, live cheaper than we do. They do their own work at home, and work out to get money to pay taxes and the interest on what they owe for their lands, and I think the fair conclusion is that the next fifteen or twenty years will carry most of our farms into the hands of Irishmen. A majority of our voters are poll-tax payers, and from this and other causes our lands are taxed about twenty dollars on a thousand. This, with the high price of labor and the expense of supporting a family, with our present habits of living, makes it nearly sure that our farms will not pay for working in a systematic manner."

Another respondent from Worcester County writes:—

"The great amount of manufacturing carried on in our State and its continual extension, will always render farm laborers scarce and dear. * * * As for raising general farm products under

any system of improvement now known, at a profit, it is impossible. A man may, to be sure, drudge and make a slave of himself to his help, and perhaps have some gain at the end of the year. But few will pursue such a course long. All the boasting in books and newspapers about the profits of farming,—as farming is generally understood,—is gammon."

"The best farm in the county," writes a respondent from Barnstable County, "could not be leased for enough to pay taxes and interest, keep up the fences and the fertility of the soil."

A respondent from Hampden County writes:—

"For twenty years I have given earnest attention to the condition of the agriculture of Massachusetts. My attention and observation have led me to fear that a rational and satisfactory analysis of the subject is impossible. The stock breeder is the servant of a theory. The land owner praises farming, but sells out and goes into other business, or migrates to other sections of our country. The man who prizes a home in Massachusetts above all earthly gain, labors and endures. Whoever codifies the returns you may receive, ought, in justice to himself, to summon around him a representation of each section of the State, and *shut them up to battle for awhile over the digest.*"

We have extended these quotations from the replies of our respondents (and others of similar character might be added), to show how general is the feeling of dissatisfaction and discouragement on account of the present condition of agriculture in the State;—how hardly the cost and inferiority of labor seem to bear upon farmers generally, and what may be the efficient cause of contracted operations and diminished productions in large portions of the State.

In addition to what has been presented from the replies of respondents, we think it proper to notice more particularly the great advance in the rates of taxation as an element of the discouragement of many farmers. Perhaps upon no class in the community has the increased burden of taxation, within the past twenty-five years, borne more heavily than upon farmers, since the bulk of their property is always visible and subject to taxation at its full value. An exhibition of the average

rates of taxation since 1861, will show that this can be no light burden upon those whose yearly income must be, in general, limited, at the best, and continually liable to abridgment by changes which can be neither foreseen nor avoided. In 1861, the average rate of taxation in the State upon all kinds of property, was \$8.82 on \$1,000. In 1870, the average rate was \$15.46 on \$1,000,—an advance of 75 per cent.

It may well be considered, also, how heavily the present style of living bears upon farmers, as it does indeed upon all other classes.

The farmers and small capitalists, by the fact of their removal from wage-labor, into the arena of profit, are forced into a society, the conditions of which, demand an outlay of means that their income cannot warrant. For, although it is said and written, that there are no class distinctions in our State and nation, every one knows that such is not the fact.

An ordinary country town will present classes as marked and well-defined as any European nobility could wish. Into the first and second class of society the well-to-do and moderate farmer enters, and as the town grows in importance, and trade establishes a higher style and cost of living, the struggle to maintain position often leads to expenses, not necessarily undesirable expenses, but out of the limit of the slow and small returns of agricultural industry.

It is this struggle, constantly going on in all classes, that increases consumption and so lessens cost; nevertheless, a process painful to the individual who allows his expenses to exceed his income. Many farmers in remote towns are but slowly operated upon by these causes.

Their homes are abodes of frugality with comfort; of simple manners with graceful refinement; of patient industry with vigorous health; of useful intelligence with cheerful contentment. But the majority are content to move with the general current, and to comply with prevailing custom, though it be against reason and interest, and their whole life becomes a continual struggle and deceptive show.

We do not expect, nor is it desirable that the farmers of to-day should go back to adopt the manners and customs of a former century. Perhaps the extravagances of that period

bore a similar proportion to the farmer's income, as those do of the present times.

There is much dissatisfaction among farm laborers, also, which obviously affects the extent and results of farm operations. Men hired for the season, secretly murmur or openly rebel, at the apparent inequality between their condition and that of others hired by the day, in respect to wages paid them, and the hours of labor required. They naturally desire, and, if possible, contrive in some way to balance this inequality, however much they may injure their employer thereby.

The desire to lessen hard labor and shorten its continuance, has become almost, if not quite, universal. The introduction of machinery and improved implements of husbandry, does indeed diminish the ordinarily hard work of the laborer. But the time saved by this means is commonly occupied in other employments, and so the hours of labor are not shortened thereby.

We proceed now to give a condensed summary of the replies of many respondents to the questions contained in the agricultural blanks before alluded to. These replies, however, represent only the experience or observation of the writers within the towns, or sections of the State, in which they themselves reside. They naturally differ, and in some instances widely, in relation to the same thing. We regret to add also, that many of them appear to have been written hastily and without full consideration, and afford no definite, reliable information. We have rejected these in making up this summary, and from the rest have endeavored to draw a fair representation of their contents. To obtain authoritative statistics of the agricultural productions of the State, we have consulted the several censuses of the United States.

It will be observed that the first fifteen questions of the blanks issued this year, are the same which were printed in the blanks issued last year. The replies to them, also, though from different respondents, are similar in their general import. To avoid therefore a seeming repetition, and to abbreviate space, we present an abstract of the whole, excepting only the replies to the questions relating to the average wages of farm laborers, of which we submit in detail the following table:—

TABLE NO. 3.—Average Wages of Agricultural Laborers, per Month.

COUNTIES.	WAGES WITH BOARD.				WAGES WITHOUT BOARD.			
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.
Barnstable,	\$29 50	\$10 20	\$13 00	\$6 50	\$45 50	\$20 00	\$26 00	\$13 00
Berkshire,	24 90	10 40	18 90	9 00	42 35	17 41	28 21	-
Bristol,	29 23	14 83	16 75	13 00	45 56	24 23	28 61	17 99
Essex,	28 04	13 41	13 45	7 50	48 19	19 00	28 00	19 50
Franklin,	25 78	12 00	15 57	7 93	41 42	25 50	28 07	14 00
Hampden,	24 87	12 36	17 44	10 10	41 85	21 33	26 71	16 73
Hampshire,	26 85	12 37	16 89	8 34	43 43	22 00	25 56	16 07
Middlesex,	27 22	12 69	19 31	8 50	45 31	22 68	30 13	16 18
Norfolk,	29 25	11 83	12 64	8 00	49 26	25 82	27 24	18 37
Plymouth,	29 57	11 40	11 08	6 00	44 81	21 75	24 50	-
Suffolk,	25 00	-	12 00	-	45 00	-	20 00	-
Worcester,	30 09	12 34	17 14	7 37	45 16	24 29	29 96	17 21
Average wages of men, per month,	.	.	with board, \$27 52; without board, \$44 82.	without board, \$44 82.	Value of board, \$17 30.			
of women, per month,	.	"	12 17;	"	26 39.	"	"	14 22.
of young persons, per month,	.	"	15 35;	"	26 91.	"	"	11 56.
of children, per month,	.	"	8 39;	"	16 56.	"	"	8 17.
Hours of Labor, generally 10.								

NOTE.—This Table differs from that on page 159, Second Report, inasmuch as it gives averages derived from our Returns, and not highest and lowest prices. We differ also from the United States Census.

The employment of women in agricultural districts, is represented by respondents to be confined almost exclusively to the general housework and dairy. There are some localities, however, where women of foreign nativity are employed to set out and weed various plants, to pick small fruits, peas, and beans, and to prepare articles for the market. Occasionally, they assist in raking hay, binding grain, harvesting potatoes, stripping the leaves from tobacco plants, etc. These employments are paid for by the hour, or in proportion to the kind and amount of labor performed. The heavy field work in which they are often employed in Europe, is rarely, if ever, done by them here. Children, also, are chiefly employed by their parents at home in some light work, or if in the field at all, it is in similarly light work, and during the seasons of planting and harvesting. Their wages are usually proportioned to their age and ability, or to the work they have performed. The common school privileges are everywhere *open* to all. But, unfortunately, these privileges are not universally and continuously made use of, and the compulsory educational law on the statute book, is, as a general thing, *wholly neglected and inoperative*.

Laborers hired for the season,—from April to November,—are expected to work ten hours daily, in addition to the time occupied in jobs at the barn; and those hired by the year, to work the same time in summer, and eight hours in winter, with the like addition of chores at the barn. When not occupied in farm work during the winter, laborers generally find employment in cutting and teaming wood and lumber, preparing wood for fuel, storing ice, and in the various sorts of labor for which there is occasion in their several localities. Sometimes a scarcity of employment leads them into habits of idle loafing, or hurtful dissipation, an evil which seems to demand the pity of the benevolent, and strenuous efforts of all advocates of reform.

In the nationality of farm laborers, there has been an almost entire change within the last twenty-five years. Few natives can now be hired to work upon a farm, and these only in particular localities. The predominant nationality is Irish. French Canadians, Nova Scotians and Germans are multiplying in some parts of the State. The relative proportion of the several nationalities has been estimated to be, of the Irish, fifty per cent.; French Canadians, fifteen; Nova Scotians, ten; Ger-

mans, five ; and natives, twenty. When hired for the season or the year, foreign laborers usually board—if single men, in the family of their employer,—if married, at home. Day laborers generally board themselves, at home or otherwise. With all, the place of board is frequently determined by distance from home, or from church, and by family relations.

In point of education and intelligence there is a wide difference between native and foreign laborers, as would be naturally expected from their diverse educational advantages. The education of natives is generally very fair ; that of foreigners is generally, and often lamentably, deficient. Yet many of those who have had least elementary education, often prove intelligent about practical affairs. “ They know,” says an intelligent respondent, “ how to practise economy ; how to utilize manure heaps and make composts ; how to dig ditches and drain and clear up bogs, and to raise cabbages and grass. The children of different foreign nationalities seem to be alike disposed to improve the privileges of school education, and are represented by our respondents to rival, and, in some instances, to excel the children of native parents in docility and attainments.

Our respondents differ very widely in respect to the effect of employing foreign laborers, upon the character and results of farm operations. By a majority of them it is represented to have been “ decidedly unfavorable,” and by others “ decidedly beneficial.” All admit, however, that the employment of such laborers has been of *necessity* and not of *preference* ; for without it farming could not have been continued at all in many localities. A majority of respondents admit, also, that the cultivation of the soil has been more thorough and systematic than formerly, but not in consequence of the employment of foreign laborers, nor sufficiently profitable to overbalance the great increase of wages, taxes and other necessary expenditures.

Agricultural machinery is in quite general use upon large farms, diminishing the hard work, but not the number nor wages of laborers. Fewer hands may be needed to do any given piece of work ; but any profitable use of machinery requires skilful, intelligent laborers, and such can always command the highest wages.

A respondent from Worcester County writes :—

“The use of machinery has lessened the constancy of the demand for labor, and increased the wages of laborers.”

One from Bristol County writes:—

“The demand for labor in mechanical employments is great, and that raises the wages, while it lessens the number of farm laborers.”

The observation and experience of respondents differ concerning the increase or decrease of skilled agricultural labor. By most, it is represented to be decreasing. They attribute the fact, however, not to the use of machinery, except as that may have diminished the whole number of laborers, but rather to the demand for skilled labor in other occupations. Respondents differ also, concerning the value of skilled labor. By some it is maintained, that what may be properly termed skilled agricultural labor, is needful only in the farmer, to *direct* operations, and not in the laborer to *perform* them. Others assert that skill is absolutely necessary alike in directing the use of agricultural machinery, and in preparing the soil for that use; and that skilled labor is a chief element of success in our present methods of farming.

We have now to present, more in detail, the replies of respondents to questions not included in the blanks distributed last year.

Q. 16. “*Have any changes taken place in the kind of crops grown in your vicinity within the last twenty-five years, and if yes, what have they been; and what has been the increase or decrease in yield, per acre, of grains or grass?*”

There have been great changes in the sort of crops generally grown, and in the methods of growing all crops. Farmers have been compelled, in a measure, to adopt such changes by the great alteration of circumstances affecting farm operations within the past twenty-five years. The increased expense of raising certain crops which were once universally raised, and the abundant cheaper supply of such crops from the West, have led many farmers to discontinue the growth of them. The increased demand for other productions in the markets of cities and populous towns and villages, together with quick returns and surer profits, has tended to the same result. “It

is impossible," says a respondent, "for Massachusetts to compete with the Western States in the growth of corn and all kinds of grain." "Twenty-five years ago," says another from Worcester County, "corn was the staple crop of the farmer. Since the great West—the grain-producing country,—has been brought to our doors, corn, being a commodity of easy transportation, has not been much raised in this vicinity. Our farmers are turning their attention more to the grass and root crops, in which the fertilizing matter which accumulates on the farm, can be more profitably applied." Tobacco has become the staple crop in the valley of the Connecticut. Market-garden and fruit crops have largely multiplied in the eastern portion of the State. Milk has become a chief object of production, where there are facilities for transporting it to market, and immense quantities are daily sent to Boston, New York, and to inland cities and large towns, yielding quick and profitable returns.

A respondent from Berkshire County writes:—

"The business of producing and shipping milk to New York city, has, within four years, created a great change in farming operations. Before then, wool and mutton were among the leading productions. Many of our heaviest farmers raised grain, bought store cattle, fed them with grain and hay, and turned them into beef in the following spring or summer. Since 1867, wool, mutton and beef have been changed for milk. Farmers producing milk, usually grow sowed corn for fall-feeding, and buy their grain, it being cheaper to buy than to raise it. Farms having proper facilities for producing and curing milk (cold, running, spring water) have increased in value twenty-five per cent. within four years."

A respondent from Essex County writes:—

"Twenty-five years ago, every farmer raised his own corn and potatoes; but, for the last few years, the demand for milk has been such, that the raising of hay and roots for the cows has been the chief object of cultivation. The result is, that scarcely any corn is raised, and but few potatoes, and much larger crops of hay."

One from Middlesex County writes:—

“Instead of hay for home use, and rye, corn, beans and potatoes, milk and butter for family consumption merely,—large numbers of our farmers are now engaged in producing milk, fruits and vegetables for market. Some do, and will continue to sow more or less grain. They prepare the land more thoroughly and obtain large crops. Many of the old ryefields, having become exhausted, have been abandoned to a growth of wood and left to recuperate in that way.”

Another respondent from Worcester County writes:—

“There are fewer acres of hoed crops and more of grass and pasture and rather more woodland. Those who still cultivate corn and grain, take more pains, perhaps, or it would not be a paying operation at the prices of labor and products. Grass has probably not increased in the aggregate yield per acre—as it is ‘the lazy man’s crop,’ but in good hands the product is larger than formerly.”

Cheese factories have been established in several localities and are yielding profitable returns where intelligently managed.

A respondent from Hampshire County writes:—

“Instead of family dairies, the milk of several hundred cows is here manufactured into cheese, with much less labor and a better profit. There is a greater uniformity in the cheese, and a great economy of labor, since one person will, in this way, take care of the milk of a hundred cows, as easily as that of twenty in the old way.”

Butter holds, in some localities, the chief place in the attention of farmers, and commands large and quick returns. A respondent from Hampden County writes:—

“I am engaged in general farming, dairy and stock-raising for butter purposes, butter being my specialty. I have twenty-four cows, and sell about 4,000 pounds of butter in the year. I have increased the yield of hay upon my farm from fifty, to one hundred and fifty tons per year, by bringing in waste lands and by underdraining, and I have but just begun to develop the capabilities of my lands.”

Market-gardening and fruit-raising have become specialties with many farmers, and, within convenient distance from good markets, are multiplying rapidly.

Q. 17. "*Have these changes increased or decreased the number of farm laborers, and what effect has such increase or decrease had upon farm wages?*"

There is a wide difference between the replies of respondents from different parts of the State, as to the effect of these changes upon the number and wages of farm laborers. Some affirm that the effect has been an increase of both; that tobacco and market-gardening, for example, require more labor and skill, and therefore give employment to more laborers, and at higher wages. It is harder, they say, to cultivate one acre of either, than three or four acres of other crops. A respondent from Middlesex County writes:—

"The number and wages of farm laborers have decreased, where farming alone is practised. Heavy manuring, good clean cultivation with the improved implements of the day, do not require so much labor to produce a given amount as the old system of farming did. But where market-gardening is carried on extensively, much more labor is requisite to manage the same number of acres. On the whole, I judge that the changes which have taken place in farm productions, have had no material effect upon either the number or wages of farm laborers."

Q. 18. "*Has the amount of capital necessary for the business of farming been increased or decreased by these changes?*"

The amount of capital requisite for the successful prosecution of farming, has been *largely increased*.

"Mowing-machines, hay-tedders and horse-rakes, with other improved implements, the high price demanded for manure, for stock of all kinds, for labor, and for the acres to begin with, all have an influence in that direction."

Indeed, it would seem that the amount of capital which can be used under our present methods of farming, other things being equal, indicates the probability of successful or unsuccessful farm operations.

Q. 19. "*Is any land in your town owned by non-resident proprietors, and if yes, how many acres? Is such land under cultivation, and if so, how much of it, and under what cultivation and system of management?*"

Assessors, who must have it in their power to furnish definite and exact information upon the main points of this question, have, in some instances, returned most indefinite replies, and in others, none at all. The whole number of acres in the several towns from which definite information has been received, is *two hundred and forty thousand* (240,000), the greater part of which is devoted to pasture and wood. Only a small portion is represented to be under cultivation, and that to be managed in the ordinary way of outlying rented land. In some localities the lands are held by proprietors merely for future sale, under expectation of a rise in the value of real estate.

Q. 20. “*Is vegetable gardening, or the growth of small fruits for the market, carried on in your town? If yes, to what extent has it taken the place of ordinary farming?*”

In favorable localities, vegetable gardening and the growth of small fruits, have become the chief business of many farmers, and with them it supersedes ordinary farming. A respondent from Norfolk County writes:—

“Peas are planted by the acre. Squashes, Swedes, Tomatoes, Cabbages have taken the place of the Corn and Potato culture of former years. Whatever of a vegetable kind can find a market, is raised, and this cultivation, with fruit-growing, has, to a great extent, taken the place of common farming.”

Similar reports from other localities in the neighborhood of large markets, show that this branch of agriculture is regarded with increasing attention and favor, wherever it can be engaged in with reasonable expectation of success.

Q. 21. “*Have your farmers (as that appellation is generally understood), continued their old, or adopted new methods of agriculture? If the latter, what are these methods, and what is their effect upon productions and their pecuniary value, and upon the demand for farm laborers?*”

The wealthier farmers throughout the State, are represented by respondents to be seeking and adopting new and improved methods of farming. They feel the influence and share the result of the progressive spirit of the times. Their lands are more generally cleared of rocks and stumps, and if wet, are underdrained. They plough more deeply and pulverize the soil

more completely. They make, save and buy manure, and apply it more judiciously and freely. They use better implements and more agricultural machinery. They practise rotation of crops, and use more time and labor for clean, thorough cultivation. They obtain, as the result, better productions and larger crops from fewer acres. They study the markets, and avail themselves of opportunities to dispose of their productions at a paying price. They read, think and talk about the experience of others in the same occupation, and many become able to extend their operations, employ more laborers, pay higher wages, and bear increased taxation. Of the majority of our farmers, it remains to be said, however, that they *are overborne by the discouraging circumstances in their situation*. They are wanting in spirit, as well as in means, to improve the condition of their lands, increase their crops, and obtain anything more than a bare subsistence from their farms. The poetry and rhetoric of farming are very different from the reality of it. The pleasure of men of wealth in their summer residences,—full of all that can minister to comfort and enjoyment,—is no fit criterion by which to estimate the condition of men whose whole life is one of toil, and of toil the fruit of which must be their sole dependence for means of support. That such conditions are many and multiplying among the farmers of this State, it were useless to deny. The familiar words of the Latin poet respecting the exceeding good fortune of farmers, finds accordant response in the homes of few *working* farmers. To many they express anything but truth.

The general tone of the returns we have received,—except in instances of peculiarly fortunate locality and surrounding circumstances,—has been that of discouragement rather than satisfaction,—apprehensive, rather than hopeful. The farmers are the best judges whether any sufficient reason for such a state of feeling exists. We hear it said that farmers can and must adapt their operations to existing circumstances, and change them for others that will yield more profitable returns. They must watch and avail themselves of opportunities to buy whatever may be more cheaply bought than raised, and to sell what commands a higher price than the cost of producing it. But the fact seems to be that existing circumstances have already placed very many farmers in a condition from which they

cannot extricate themselves. Opportunities of which others, more fortunate, can avail themselves, are of no advantage to them. Where, and as they now are, they must remain, unless the enterprise in other occupations which is rapidly changing the whole face of the State by opening new avenues to prosperity, should bring to them the needed relief.

A practical farmer in Worcester County writes to us :—

“The expenses attending the cultivation of the soil absorb all the profits. * * * Railroad communication with the great grain and stock-raising sections of the West, entirely robs us of any control whatever of the markets. Beef cattle raised on the extensive ranches of Texas and fattened on the pasturage of the vast prairies of Illinois, and other States, are shipped to our Eastern markets in such quantities as to control the prices of our Eastern cattle. Hence farmers here are at the mercy of those at the West. And not only so with regard to neat stock, but all products of the farm except the dairy, which as yet is most productive in the Eastern States. My farming operations are not what I should wish to make them, for the reason that I cannot obtain help that is reliable. I have most of the labor-saving machinery, including mowing-machine, hay tedder, horse rake and all the recognized improvements. Still, my expenses, including town taxes of between one and two hundred dollars, absorb at the end of the year nearly all my income. And such, I think, is the experience of a large majority of the farmers of my acquaintance. I will close, giving this as my opinion, that Massachusetts farmers have had their best days.”

We quote also the following article in a very recent issue of the “Springfield Republican,” in proof of the general opinion of our respondents, that farming in Massachusetts is attended with many failures and discouragements even where the prospect of success has been most promising :—

“People of other avocations seldom see anything but the bright side of farm life. The failures, the unpleasant realities, the dark, sides are studiously kept from view. It requires more pluck and moral heroism to own a mistake than to blazon a success, and hence multitudes are wrecked in hope on the breakers that they might have escaped, but for the cowardice in giving timely warning. We hold it to be the solemn duty of agricultural societies and newspapers to erect light-houses on every dangerous reef and

rocky shore of the rural sea, and keep them brightly burning. So shall agriculture be raised from its present low estate and ultimately be better rewarded. We are happy to set up one beacon light in a neighboring corn field. A wealthy and energetic gentleman of this city, experienced in railroad and real estate matters, has for several years past, partly for diversion and partly for the improvement of his property, been experimenting in farming on the sands east of the city. His success, like that of other farmers, has been various, but, unlike many of them, he allows the public to profit by a mistake, made the last year, and now that the ice is broken, we hope that others will fall in and make full confession. This gentleman planted yellow dent-corn from Peoria, Ill., on the 9th and 10th of May last on a piece of sandy ground, three acres and eighteen rods in extent. The land was too poor to produce grass, and its last crop, five years previous, was about nine bushels of rye per acre. In 1870 it was ploughed twice to the depth of ten inches. Last spring, just previous to planting, twelve cords of stable manure were applied to the acre, and ploughed under ten inches deep. After ploughing, six hundred pounds of salt and 200 pounds of plaster, mixed, were sown broadcast on each acre and harrowed in. The ground was then marked into rows three feet and six inches apart and planted. The cost of the crop was as follows:—

Ploughing 3 times, 2 days each, at \$4 per day,	. . . \$24 00
Harrowing 2 days,	. . . 8 00
40½ cords manure, at \$8 per cord,	. . . 324 00
1,900 lbs. salt, at \$13 per ton,	. . . 12 35
600 lbs. plaster, at \$11 per ton,	. . . 3 30
Hauling manure, at \$1 a cord,	. . . 40 50
Spreading manure, 2 days, at \$1.75 per day,	. . . 3 50
Mixing and sowing salt and plaster,	. . . 2 50
¾ bushel seed corn, at 80 cents a bushel,	. . . 60
4½ days planting, at \$1.75 a day,	. . . 7 88
1 day, man and horse cultivating, first time,	. . . 3 00
5¼ days, first hoeing, at \$1.75,	. . . 9 19
1½ days cultivating, second time, both ways,	. . . 4 50
4 days, second hoeing,	. . . 7 00
4¾ days, topping stalks,	. . . 8 32
Husking by contract,	. . . 12 00
Hauling corn to barn,	. . . 1 25
Interest and taxes on land,	. . . 45 00
Total,	. . . \$516 89

“The rows were straight, the field kept clean, the growth very vigorous, and it ripened well. It seemed as though the western corn raised in New England was a success, and the owner confidently invited some disinterested friends to examine and note the results. These gentlemen, with the proprietor and writer, visited the field on the 9th of October, selected an average spot which measured 262 feet, and harvested it. The corn was husked and found to weigh 45 pounds. It was then suspended in an open basket in a safe, dry place till the 29th of November, when these same gentlemen found its weight to be $31\frac{1}{4}$ pounds. After shelling and cleaning, its weight was $22\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, having shrunk one-half the original weight of corn on the cob. The weight of a measured bushel was found to be $54\frac{1}{6}$ pounds; the yield per acre $66\frac{1}{8}$ bushels, and the cost about \$2 per bushel:—

By 3 tons of stalks, at \$10 per ton,	\$30 00
By $207\frac{1}{2}$ bushels of corn, at 88 cents per bushel,	182 60
By $\frac{1}{4}$ of the manure unexpended,	84 91
	<hr/>
	\$297 51

“The moral of this story is that when corn sells in Illinois at 30 cents for 56 pounds, shelled, and at 27 cents for 70 pounds in the ear, and at \$1.70 for 100 pounds meal in Springfield, it is pretty expensive diversion to grow corn in New England till labor and lands are cheaper.”

[Must we not, then, bid farewell to corn-culture, as price, land and labor (and we may add manure) are each on the increase?]

A cause of this decline is found in the almost constant removal of the most enterprising members of agricultural communities to the centres of trade and manufactures, or to the more promising fields of labor in the West. Nor can this tendency be stayed, while so many disadvantages and causes of discouragement remain in the general condition of farmers in the greater part of the State. Our young men, born and reared upon the farm, are too often made to feel that they occupy an inferior place in social life. They may, perhaps, have in them all the real elements of worldly success—enterprise, sobriety, frugality and industry. But the path to success

is not always open to them. They see that the employment of a farmer is thought to disqualify him for admission to the most refined circles of society, and for that consideration to which his virtues and his acquirements would otherwise entitle him. They naturally desire and look for opportunity to become the possessors of property,—an ambition which often gives to exertion an impulse to be supplied by nothing else. Their bosoms glow with the feeling of honest pride at the thought that the roof which shelters them will be their own, and that the fruit of their labor can be claimed by no one else. But how many barriers do they see to the attainment of their desire; how many pecuniary demands will have to be supplied; how many social restraints to be overcome; how many obstacles to be removed which will render any change from the condition they now occupy to a higher, not merely difficult, but often impossible.

We would not have it supposed that we regard the agriculture of the State, though declining, as hopelessly so. Nor do we hesitate to say, that the causes of discontent and discouragement among farmers and farm laborers may be, to a great extent, counteracted or removed by a general adoption of wise, practicable measures. What those measures should be, we must leave to future consideration and development.

Much may be done by the widest possible diffusion of agricultural literature,—of the facts of science and results of experience, and a thorough, practical education of those who are to occupy and till our farms hereafter. Then, let a community of interest as well as of endeavor be universally established between farmers and their laborers—such as humanity and true religion demand,—and the result will be more efficient and more profitable labor, and mutually beneficial and satisfactory relations.

The returns to our blanks, and the closest observation, clearly indicate the following facts, and warrant the conclusions we have drawn:

First. That the wages of farm laborers have increased in proportion to the advance in other departments of labor, requiring about the same skill and culture, and occupied by the same nationality; and this increase is more clearly traced to the advance of wages in mechanical employments, than to any other cause; showing a following after, rather than a leading off.

Yet, according to the theory of demand and supply,—the farm laborer should be the best paid of all laborers, as the complaint of the scarcity of help is uniform and almost universal.

So, also, the hours of labor have generally diminished from the old time,—sunrise to sunset,—to ten hours per day; and this, without any other cause than the increasing power of custom, aided, perhaps, by the introduction of machinery. A curious instance of the effect of the latter is found in an advertisement of a hay-tedder, in which it is claimed that “with this tedder there is no need of the sixteen-hour rule per day.”

Second. Farming is an occupation in which a man with a small capital, cannot safely invest, unless his nearness to a growing manufacturing town renders the future sale of his land, for other than farming purposes, probable. The day of large farms with small capital, worked by individual owners, must inevitably follow the rapidly declining number of small manufacturers and small dealers. The enterprise of our native population is adverse to the slow methods and unprofitable returns of such investments. The West must feed the East; for there the prairies offer an opportunity for the aggregated capital and congregated labor necessary to the economical production of food. As well might we hope to go back to the old methods of textile production, or our large cities to depend upon the well and the cistern, to supply their inhabitants with water, or the uncertain yield of oil with light, as to hope that the teeming millions of the future are to be fed by the wasteful and unproductive individual farming of the present.

It is true that a foreigner, coming from a country where the land is owned by the nobility, will grub, and starve himself and family for a few acres, on which he can only live, and for which he will pay by extra work for others. But even he will find it difficult to keep sons and daughters in the poverty-stricken condition of such homes, when town and city hold out better homes, more wages, and fewer hours of labor.

Farming and housework alike remain under the curse of drudgery—work never done—and will both alike be shunned for pleasanter and less confining employments.

While this change is going on, another, fully as marked, is constantly reminding us of the mother country, whose example we sometimes follow, but whose warnings we seldom heed.

Country residences are multiplying, with their farming for fashion, farms on which the eye can feast, beautiful trees and large crops, and fine imported cattle, kept more for private exhibition than for productive work. Full-blooded horses claim large attention; the horse-trot being the climax of the day.* Nothing can be done to turn this tide. It must go on; but it can be directed, and thus controlled. Not by cheapening labor, either by increasing its hours of toil or by importation, but by making it still higher and more valuable.

The laborers who consume the farmer's products are of more importance than the laborers who help in their production. Cheap labor has cheap wants; cheap wants, cheap homes and cheap dinners. Neither fruit nor garden sauces, neither strawberries, asparagus, celery, pears, nor grapes, &c., will grace the table of the uncultivated man, who finds his daily wages can only buy, as we have found, Indian meal, molasses, and occasional bits of meat.

Third. The increase of taxation is complained of, as a cause of this decline; and there is much truth in the assertion that our farmers are the heaviest taxed of any class of the community, and as their cash receipts are very small, the forty or fifty dollars annual tax is very burdensome. But even with this tax reduced, the farmer's lot must be a hard one. Yet relief should be given, and that at once, and the method of that relief should be found, not in a niggardly expenditure, but in a wise and comprehensive system of taxation, that should practically exempt, not only small farms and homesteads, but all small capitalists. This can be done by a sliding scale of taxation that should make all responsible. The extremely wealthy can bear being taxed in a greater ratio than the middling and working classes.

The poll-tax voters, of whom a respondent complains, would under such a system, pay no more tax, but that tax would be upon the expenditures of the State, and thereby he would become interested in the matter of State expenses.

The growth of colossal fortunes will, sooner or later, convince the small farmers, small capitalists and working men, that the protection of their rights will demand this reform.

* These demoralizing schools of betting and gambling are the bane of the Agricultural Fair.

It was the saying of the Roman orator, that “there is a natural sympathy between all the arts and sciences, that contribute to the comfort and support of society ; so that the progress of any is, in a degree, the progress of all.” It is then not only an imperative duty, but the dictate of prudent self-interest, to do all that can be done to remove every barrier to social elevation and happiness ; to alleviate and abridge the severity of daily toil ; to stimulate native talent and enterprise by rewards of honor and profit ; to open every avenue to the honest acquirement and possession of property ; and to extend all the advantages and satisfactions of life into every condition, even the humblest, of society.

CLASS II. COMMERCIAL.

DIVISION 1.—FISHERIES.

In the former Reports, we have given a full account of the methods of conducting the whale, cod and mackerel fisheries ; the system of payment by shares has been dwelt upon, and the contrast drawn between this old-time custom and the wage system.

We have this year tabulated such facts as have been returned to us. We have attempted to obtain the total number of persons employed in this branch of industry, but without success. The blanks used were the same as those used last year, and were, in brief, as follows : Size and cost of vessels ; how owned ; details of outfit ; length of voyage and in what waters ; how conducted ; proportion of shares and rate of wages ; hours of duty ; occupation during winter ; monopoly ; government bounty ; largest and average earnings ; employment and pay of boys ; dissensions between men and officers ; disagreement in settlement ; waste ; tendency of young men to follow share fishing ; observance of the Sabbath ; adjustment of quarrels in foreign ports ; authority of the master in share fishing ; comparison between wage and partnership system.

The following table contains such information as was capable of tabulation :—

TABLE OF SHARES, EARNINGS, ETC.

Number of Blanks.	T O W N.	Size in Tons.	Cost.	By whom owned.	Length of Voyage.	In what waters.	Months Idle.	AVERAGE EARNINGS.		No. of Boys.	Wages of Boys.
								Largest.	Smallest.		
2	Chatham,	50 to 150	\$5,000 to \$10,000	1/4 by crew,	-	-	-	\$600 00	\$250 00	2 to 4	Share.
3	Chatham,	50 to 130	1,000 to 8,000	1/4 men, 1/4 fitter,	6 mos.	American waters,	-	525 00	250 00	3	Share.
10	Wellfleet,	75 to 130	7,000 to 10,000	1/4 capt., 1/4 crew,	3 to 6 weeks.	Shore fishing and to the Bay.	-	500 00	240 00	2 to 4	1/4 to 1/2 share.
12	Harwich,	60 to 140	5,000 to 11,000	Fitters, packers and shoremen.	1 to 5 months.	Banks and Bay of St. Lawrence.	-	450 00	125 00	2 to 3	\$10 to 75.
13	Harwich,	40 to 115	6,000 to 10,000	Fitters,	4 to 6 months.	Shore fishing and Banks of Newfoundland.	-	800 00	300 00	2 to 6	\$10 to 100
17	Harwich,	60	3,000	Fitters,	4 weeks.	-	4	450 00	350 00	1 to 3	25 to 33 per cent. \$10 per month.
20	Newburyport,	18 to 50	2,500 to 3,000	Fitters,	10 dys. to 3 mos.	Shore fishing and Bay of St. Lawrence.	5	500 00	200 00	4	-
21	Newburyport,	18 to 50	2,500 to 3,000	Fitters,	10 dys. to 3 mos.	Shore fishing and Bay of St. Lawrence.	5	500 00	200 00	-	-
29	Swampscott,	20 to 50	3,600 to 10,000	Crew and shoremen,	-	-	-	1,000 00	500 00	-	Share.
31	Swampscott,	38	2,100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
38	Swampscott,	40 to 100	5,000	1/4 crew, 1/4 shoremen,	-	American waters,	8	1,200 00	300 00	-	-
39	Swampscott,	77	6,500	1-16 capt. and shore- men.	1 to 3 weeks.	Main waters,	1 1/2	1,000 00	200 00	1	1/4 share.
43	Swampscott,	43	7,000	1/4 crew, 1/4 others,	1 week.	-	-	1,100 00	250 00	-	-
44	Marblehead,	70	9,000	Fitters,	5 mos.	-	6	600 00	262 00	-	-
48	Marblehead,	70	9,000	Fitters,	5 mos.	Grand Banks,	6	700 00	250 00	-	-
57	Gloucester,	45	3,200 to 2,000	-	1 week to 4 mos.	American waters,	3 to 9	500 00	375 00	1	Share.

	Salem, .	30 to 105	\$4,000 to 10,000	Fitters,	12 dys. to 4 mos.	Grand Banks, Bay of St. Lawrence.	-	\$650 00	\$275 00	1 to 3	Share.
59	Gloucester, .	55 to 80	5,500 to 8,000	Fitters,	2 w'ks to 3 mos.	Georges, Grand Banks, St. Lawrence.	2 to 3	1,200 00	400 00	2	Share.
60	Gloucester, .	68	9,000	-	-	-	Grand Banks, Gulf of St. Lawrence.	1 week to 3 mos.	400 00	300 00	6	Share.
66	Gloucester, .	55	7,500	Fitters,	1 to 3 months.	Grand Banks, Bay of St. Lawrence.	4	600 00	330 00	1	$\frac{1}{2}$ share.
78	Gloucester, .	80	6,000	-	-	2 w'ks to 4 mos.	Georges Bank, Shore and Bay.	-	600 00	200 00	1 to 2	$\frac{1}{2}$ share.
92	Gloucester, .	60 to 70	6,000 to 7,000	-	-	2 to 12 weeks.	Georges Bank, Gulf St. Lawrence.	2 to 4	750 00	400 00	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ share.
95	Rockport, .	30 to 75	2,000 to 6,000	Shoremen and crew,	. . .	1 to 4 weeks.	Banks and Shore, .	-	800 00	350 00	1 to 2	$\frac{1}{2}$ share.
105	Kingston, .	86	-	-	-	5 mos.	Grand Bank, .	5	250 00	200 00	1	\$50 sea'n.
106												

Average size of vessel, 60½ tons.

" cost of vessel, \$5,642.

" length of voyage, 10 weeks.

Average number of months, 4½.

" earnings per year, \$482.

" number of boys employed, 2 to 3.

It will be observed that the average highest earnings doubtless embrace the largest number of persons engaged in the business, as there is a uniformity of share to the largest number of Fishermen, the small shares belonging to green hands, etc. It must also be understood that the earnings do not include the living expenses on board the vessel.

The replies to questions contained in Blank No. 2—Fisheries—elicit no new facts or matters of interest bearing on this branch of labor not already given in last Report; the general testimony being largely in favor of the share-system, as at present conducted, over the wage-system. It is claimed that the success of share-fishing is mainly due to the authority of the master. Share-fishermen, as a general thing, will take more interest and work harder, than those on wages. The testimony of several Owners is to the effect, that since the introduction of the wage-system in their locality, the business is nearly broken up.

Fishing on the Sabbath is the most fertile cause of dissension, but there is seldom any very great trouble. Bounties are sometimes paid to Cod-fishermen; formerly, one-half to crew and one-half to vessel; but the mackerel business has never received any of the national fish-bounty.

The following extracts from blanks contain some additional information. In answer to question 5, "How conducted? Whether upon shares or wages?" sixteen reply, on shares, four, on shares and wages, and one on percentage. Eight report shares of officers and men, equal; three from two to four per cent. additional to officers; and one, owners half and men half.

To question No. 7—"Are any advances made?" Four reply, none; two reply, yes.

To question No. 8—"What are the hours of labor or duty of the crews of fishermen?" The replies in all cases are that they are varying, being sometimes compelled to serve the entire twenty-four hours. They are usually, however, said to be not less than twelve hours a day. Others state a lower figure.

To question No. 9—"Is the sale of any one of these products made a monopoly on the part of those in the business, by underselling competitors, regardless of cost?" The answer in each case was "No."

One of the most striking instances of the anti-monopoly spirit of our fishing towns, is found in the experience of a gentleman who attempted to control the fishing interest of a Cape Town. His failure to accomplish his purpose he attributed to the lack of spirit of the town, but the fact was this; the inhabitants guarded their right with jealous care, fearing that his success was their ruin, for, said one of the citizens, "We should soon find a few men in possession of great wealth, and many worthy men in poverty; while now we are all about on the same footing."

A company in ——— say that

"At the present time the Fishing business is depressed. Vessels and outfits are high in proportion to prices of fish. The past ten years were the best ten for fishermen that, probably, were ever known. They made very good voyages. Some Captains by hiring crews, made twice as much as Sharesmen. But the season of 1871 was a failure in that respect. Hired men got more than any one else. Those engaged in the Fishing business—fishermen and shoremen—do more labor, work more hours and undergo more privations and hardships, than any other class of men in any business with which we are acquainted. And they do not get paid in any proportion to the labor and risk incurred, or to the money invested."

An Inspector of Fish remarks:—

"The Mackerel Fishery from this Town, is carried on in a different manner from that of most places. Our vessels are officered by our first and best men; who, almost without exception, are men thoroughly competent to conduct all parts of their business. The Captain, generally, is an important owner in his vessel. He ships his own crew; fixes their lay or share,—victuals and otherwise fits his vessel; in fact does everything towards getting her ready for sea; and that without consulting any other owner. He sells his mackerel himself, receives the money and figures up his voyage, pays off his crew and each owner what is due. He has complete custody of all papers and bills relating to the vessel, and acts as fully authorized agent, though he may never have been formally appointed. Of course this condition of things could not be, if our Captains were not above the average of men in their station in life, and fully qualified for the trust. This is pre-eminently the fact. In all our large fleet of vessels, there is not a Captain that makes a bad

use of liquor, and it is extremely difficult to find a case where liquor is taken even moderately. This, with the strict observance of the Sabbath while on fishing grounds, has caused a high moral tone to pervade throughout the community that effectually represses all attempts at innovation. The Wellfleet fishermen are noted, from Sandy Hook to Cape Breton, for their quietness, morality and gentlemanly deportment."

The influence of the share system, or partnership principle, upon the relations of capitalist and laborer, as well as upon the moral, social, and material condition of a people, are exhibited to a certain extent, in the fishing towns on the Cape. The Town of Wellfleet affords as favorable an illustration perhaps, as can be given, of the effect of the continuous operation of this system in production, as any we could give. Here the share system has been in constant exercise in these fisheries, from the settlement of the place in the colonial period. The town has not been engaged in whaling since the Revolution, and has therefore avoided the evils that spring directly out of the partial terms of the division of profits in the "lays" of that business. Neither are there any manufactures of any account, to interfere with the old-time custom of this vicinity.

During the last few years these simple conditions have been modified by the extension of the Oyster business consequent upon the growth of railroad facilities.

A considerable portion of the fishing fleet is engaged in freighting oysters from Virginia to Boston during the winter. In many cases the same men who were in the same vessel during her fishing cruise of the summer, remain during the winter.

These voyages are conducted upon wages. The circumstances however, are such, as to modify the usual working of that system. Sometimes the men are part owners in the vessel, sharing, of course, in the profit, and where this is not the case, they are associates and friends of the Captain, who hires them; or perhaps they are connections, or if not, have sailed with him on an equality growing out of the share system in fishing.

These joint influences result in a scale of wages, and in personal relations, which in fact amount to a partial extension of

the benefits of coöperation into this extensive branch of the business of the town.

These men traverse five hundred miles of the most dangerous part of our coast, in the most inclement season of the year, in small vessels, loaded to the water's edge. The demands of the market, and the perishable nature of the cargo, require the exercise of the highest qualities of seamanship to insure a quick passage; while the exposures and perils are such as to enforce and reward justice in dealing with labor.

Within a recent period, some of the capital of the place, has been invested in large schooners adapted to coal freighting. The relations of capital and labor in this business stand upon the usual basis.

It would be supposed that a town which is largely under the influence of coöperative ideas, would have adopted the practice of cash payments. This is not the case in Wellfleet, or in any other town as far as we know, which depends upon fishing for its main support. Yearly settlements, for family and fishing stores, are the rule; the confinement of the business, for the most part to the pleasant season of the year, probably originating this custom.

It is felt to be somewhat inconvenient, but its benefits are greater, and its burdens less, than might be supposed.

The fact that a worthy citizen has outstanding bills covering his expenses for two or three quarters of the year, does not occasion the slightest uneasiness as to his pecuniary ability. Such a state of things very often follows a prosperous season, and arises from the fact that the surplus earnings of the year were invested in the vessel in which he sails, or the house in which he lives.

This peculiarity, partly industrial and partly local, deserves consideration for this reason. Assuming that the wage-system is to be supplemented by coöperation in some form, it follows that there will be a division of profits, and a full settlement of debts at the same time, the existence of debts having been naturally and unavoidably caused by the fact, that wages, either wholly, or in great part, will have ceased to be paid under the new system.

These conditions of labor are, of course, inapplicable at the

present time, so far as personal credit is concerned, to a great portion of the working populations of our Factory towns.

If Labor Partnerships should be extended to the worthy and reliable, especially to those interested in real estate, or connected, with earnest and fixed purpose, with the permanent institutions of the locality, then the conditions which make personal credit in Wellfleet not only safe, but vitally connected with the morals and character of the people and the prosperity of the place, will have begun their happy influence in many a town and city.

It is not necessary to visit wandering tribes, to ascertain that a fixed residence is the first requisite to the elevation of the masses. Massachusetts has many a town whose laborers change their location with the facility of Arabs.

Strangers, residing in Wellfleet long enough to observe the manner of living which prevails, will notice that many of the people manage to supply their wants with much less labor than is customary in populous communities.

An examination of items from Wellfleet, in the last Industrial Returns of the State, for the year ending May 1st, 1865, gives but a meagre idea of the capacity of this town to yield a respectable, though a frugal living to its inhabitants.

The officials who are entrusted with the duty of making up these reports, are evidently obliged to confine their returns to the easily accessible facts, *leaving unnoticed a large and interesting field of inquiry.*

The value of the eggs alone sold in this town during the year in question, is given at \$5,425. This probably includes only those sent to Boston, or sold from the shops in the town; all that families who sent the eggs to market, used themselves, or sold to their neighbors, being omitted.

The same principle will apply to a large element of the productive power of the place, as will be seen in the following statement. Nearly every house has its garden in the sheltered valleys, aiding largely in the support of the family. A bed of quahaugs, raked from deep water, and deposited in some convenient spot on the beach; oysters, often growing in the same manner; clams, accessible everywhere; razor-fish, and sea clams, to be obtained occasionally; ducks and fresh fish in the numerous ponds; sea fish from the shores, and from the fleet, in addi-

tion to the regular returns; a constant supply of drift-wood, with now and then a wreck, or a school of black-fish.

These circumstances are of moment to the economist. However humble or insignificant they may be in single instances, in the aggregate, as applicable to great numbers of our population, living in thinly settled localities, they are of national importance.

They prove that the effort to obtain an accurate idea of the income of the people, in such localities, by depending on the ordinary industrial returns, or estimates, is as fallacious, as to base their expenses on the principal items of rent, food, and clothing, alone.

Industrial privileges are guarded with the same watchfulness in these fishing towns, that characterize our whole people in their relation to civil and religious liberties. Fishermen submit cheerfully to the control of their captains, allowing them almost despotic authority in the planning and conducting of voyages. It is not difficult, however, to see that this absolutism is quite different from the kind which is exercised on the quarter-deck of a "man-of-war."

Their relation to store-keepers, wharf-owners, inspectors of fish, etc., is quite different; specially so when these interests are united in a corporation. No class of producers is more observant of the power which capital gives by association, or when in individual excess, or more determined in their efforts to thwart it. The conclusions which find expression in strikes, or organized agitation in other branches of industry, result here, in a sort of mutual understanding that certain parties are not to be allowed to obtain more than their share of the common product.

It is not difficult to enforce this determination, by outfit and inspection, at some other port than the home port.

The interests which find themselves straitened by these proceedings, very naturally protest. "Such conduct," they say, "is narrow, even envious." Quite likely all the motives that move the popular mind are not of the most elevated nature. But who can blame them? The influences which are tending to shut the benefit of this ancient usage within the narrowest limits, come from the class which protests.

All experience, in this calling, proves that the people can coöperate, and will do so, when they are equitably dealt with.

CLASS II. COMMERCIAL.

DIVISION II.—LAND TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION.

In our last Report, we gave the wages of Omnibus Drivers and Expressmen, Hack and Livery Stable employés, Horse and Steam Railroad Conductors, etc.

As far as we can learn, no change has taken place in wages or hours of labor, during the past year. The extreme difficulty of obtaining information from these sources by blank circulars, has forced us to postpone an investigation into the condition of this class of workers. We therefore present, at this time, such facts relating to Longshore-men, Teamsters, Coach, Hack and Omnibus drivers, as we have been able to obtain by personal observation and inquiry.

The wages of Longshore-men or Stevedores, including those engaged in loading and discharging general cargoes, and in coal and jobbing labor on the wharves, and in stores, are from \$12 to \$14 per week, and \$1.50 per day for one horse, or ten cents per hour—\$2 for two horses, or fifteen cents per hour. Regular hours of labor per day are nine and a half; occasionally twelve hours, more or less.

Time for dinner is one hour. Lunch at ten and four o'clock, fifteen minutes each.

Average time employed during the year is eight months.

Stevedores, or Longshore-men, are a class of laborers engaged in loading and discharging the cargoes of vessels. They are found in large numbers in Boston. They are mostly of foreign origin, and are organized separately as masters and men.

This labor is sometimes subdivided, a part making a specialty of general wharf-work, others of general store-work, and others of the discharge of colliers, though all of these hands work at any labor of this nature. In most places the ordinary laborers of the locality do these several kinds of work. Boston is depended on, to a large extent, to furnish all the stevedores necessary to discharge cargoes of coal in the rivers and inlets circling the city from Lynn to Quincy, a distance of twenty miles, including Chelsea, Malden, Medford, Charlestown, East Cambridge, Cambridgeport, Brighton, Watertown, Roxbury, Dorchester, Neponset, Boston, and East and South Boston.

The Captains of colliers are under obligation to land their cargoes on the wharves or platforms of the parties who contract with them. They make their bargains with the "boss-stevedores," who hire the labor and furnish the necessary material for doing the work, either horses or a steam-engine, tubs and rigging. Their usual price is thirty cents a ton, of which twenty cents goes to the laborers, and the balance is their own remuneration, out of which, however, they must pay a boy, if horses are used, or the expense of a steam engine, if that is used.

The stevedore laborers, in addition to the boy or engineer, are included in the term of shovelers, engaged in the hold in filling the tubs, and a platform man, who empties the coal into the barrows, after it has been hoisted. They earn from four to six dollars a day, according to the hours they work, and the circumstances attending this work.

After the coal is emptied into the barrows, it is in charge of the owner who hires and pays the wheelers. Sometimes they are his own men hired by the day or month, but generally they are either "longshore-men," paid their usual price of forty cents an hour, or else they are laborers, who follow that kind of work under influences very similar to those which control the "longshore-men," except that they are not organized; demanding the same price, and standing by each other until they obtain it.

There is a large number of casualties in this calling involving life and limb. They occur mostly from falls either into the hold, from the deck, or from platforms suspended high enough in the air to be on a level with the upper part of coal sheds, &c. All parties agree in the opinion that the main source of casualties is the lack of caution and judgment on the part of the laborers.

These men, or a sufficient number of them to control the calling, are organized under the title of the "Boston United Laborers' Society," dating their origin from Sept. 1st, 1862. The number of members varies from year to year, but seems to range from four to eight hundred. They are increasing, at the present time, have regular meetings and combine the charitable with the industrial element, so far as to pay burial expenses.

Their labor regulations are stringent, but no more so than those of the mechanics who get their living upon the same

wharves. They demand a uniform price, and enforce it by fines and expulsions. They will not work with non-society men, and though there are some exceptions to this rule, it is applicable to most of their labor.

Coach, Hack and Omnibus Drivers.

There are five hundred and fifty licensed Hack and Omnibus Drivers in Boston. This is supposed to exceed the actual number engaged in the business. Of these it is estimated, that there may be fifty who own their own vehicles ; \$15 per week is given as the highest wage earnings. It appears that, for the most part, absence on account of sickness for a day or two, is not deducted from the pay.

One company employs forty (40) drivers. Their business consists mostly in conveying passengers to and from depots, steamers, hotels, etc. It is much enlarged during the months of July, August, and September. Their force, however, is not diminished during the dull season, as it requires about the same number of coaches to carry on the business, though they are not so fully occupied.

The average wages, in this company, are reported at sixty dollars per month ; hours of labor are indefinite, as they have to wait on early and late trains, and on parties and theatres. Their duties require their attendance on the Sabbath. An organization of the Drivers for mutual protection has existed for some years. It has recently divided, partly on account of national differences, and is now composed of two societies. Their original constitution is dated January, 1863. It has pecuniary provisions for cases of sickness, and of burial. Its articles appear to be designed to affect wages. Social interest is maintained by monthly meetings and by an annual Ball. The drivers report their wages at \$12 per week ; highest, \$14.

Teamsters.

A firm engaged in teaming upon one of our wharves, reports twenty-five men employed, of whom one received \$20 per week ; one, \$16 ; ten, \$14 ; thirteen, \$12. Hours of labor about nine, but sometimes exceeded, by unavoidable circumstances.

Another firm, upon one of our business streets, employs eight men, of whom the highest paid receives \$15 per week ; the lowest \$11. Hours of labor as near ten as may be.

This company makes no deduction in wages on account of absences of a few days; the larger one deducts pay in most cases. There is no organization among the teamsters, though one existed a few years ago.

DIVISION III.—WATER TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION.

But little information can be obtained in relation to seamen without personal investigation. For this we have not had sufficient time. Statistics of wages were about the same as those gathered last year. Special attention will be given to the condition of this class of our citizens in the course of our investigations. Their condition is unlike that of any other class. At sea, placed under the arbitrary power of their employers, from whose orders there is scarcely any appeal, and on land, victims of countless frauds, their condition is often considered a hopeless one, and no radical measures of reform have ever been proposed for them. The Coöperative Fishermen and the wage-sailors, are as distinct as two races.

How coöperation can be introduced into Commerce as well as into Industry, will be an interesting part of the statement of the Labor Question whenever such a statement is written.

CLASS III.—DOMESTIC LABOR AND WOMAN'S WORK.

INTRODUCTION.

The following is the result of personal investigation among the working-women and their employers in some of the manufacturing towns and cities of the State, and of replies to Blanks 3 and 4. In no case has mere hearsay evidence been relied upon, or the unsupported statement of unknown individuals accepted, but the places of business have been personally inspected, the women visited in their homes, and use has been made of only the most trustworthy testimony. Their wages have been ascertained from both employers and employées, except in one or two instances where the statement of the employer was all that could be readily obtained. In considering this branch of the subject, regard must be had to the fact that, in many trades, the busy season lasts *but a small part of the year*, and, that with short work invariably comes a reduction of wages, even to those who are so fortunate as to obtain any work at all.

Thus a woman earning six dollars this week, may, the next, receive but four, for the same labor, with added liability of partial or entire loss of employment.

Meantime the expenses of living must go on. There is small margin for retrenchment, and it is not at all uncommon for even those who have been able to save, to use up their entire savings while living in enforced idleness. The exception to this is found in House-work and some kinds of Factory labor, and yet there are conditions to these employments, such as sickness, etc., that render the statement of some force, even in its application to them

It must be remembered that many of these facts were obtained, as before stated, by the personal investigation of our assistant, and are therefore more difficult of tabulation than those obtained from a prepared series of inquiries, such as those in our blank circulars.

Blanks 3 and 4 were experimental in their nature. We give the questions contained in them to convey an idea of the design of our researches in this direction.

BLANK No. 3.

- 1.—Give your present employment.
- 2.—Number of years, or fractional parts of a year, so employed.
- 3.—State whether married or single. If married, state number in family ; yearly earnings of children, and your own total earnings.
- 4.—Hours of labor per week, with time of commencing work, time of leaving work, time allowed for dinner.
- 5.—State whether paid by the day or piece.
- 6.—Average earnings per week.
- 7.—Give system of payment, whether by the week or month ; and amount kept back each payment.
- 8.—Number of weeks employed in the year.
- 9.—Lost time out of time actually employed, and for what causes—sickness, recreation, or other causes.
- 10.—Give actual expenses for last year, in detail, as follows : for clothing, board, etc. ; or, if housekeeping, for room-rent, groceries and provisions, sickness, education, recreation, sundries, with total of same.
- 11.—Give actual savings for the past year ; how invested ; total actual savings from your own earnings for past ten years ; or total, since you commenced as a working-woman.
- 12.—If you board in a boarding-house, or if you live in a tenement-house, give a description of the same, as to convenience, health, privileges, distance from work, etc.

- 13.—If there be any associations of a moral, educational, or social character, for the accommodation of the working-woman, describe them.
- 14.—Give the number of women in the establishment in which you are employed, and number in your room.
- 15.—Give description of the establishment in which you are employed, as to conveniences, ventilation, fire-escape, protection of machinery, etc.,
- 16.—If you are obliged, from the nature of your business, to maintain one position during your working hours, state the effect of such position upon your health.
- 17.—Has, or has not, the division of labor, consequent upon the introduction of new machinery, rendered your work more tedious or monotonous?
- 18.—State your experience, if any, with strikes, or Trades'-Unions.
- 19.—If you have worked more hours, per day, than you now work, give number of hours, and results upon health and earnings. Give your experience under the shorter time also your opinion of a farther reduction.
- 20.—Have you ever known industrious working-women to be in debt, to such an extent as to require aid from friends or societies?
- 21.—What proportion of the working-women are able, within your knowledge, to save anything from their earnings for deposits in Savings Institutions, or for other investments?
- 22.—What proportion attend church?
- 23.—If there be any children, under 10, or between 10 and 15 years of age, employed in the establishment, give the number of hours, per day, that they are employed; number of months' schooling in last year.
- 24.—What are the opportunities for an apprentice to learn the trade or occupation?
- 25.—What are the chances of promotion, as compared with men employed in the same business, and what opportunities for women to enter into the business on their own account?

The facts gathered from returns to this blank, are embodied in this report. They were too meagre to admit of special tabulation.

Blank No. 4, for employers of Women contained 19 questions and a table of Wages.

Before preparing this blank, one of the largest Clothing Establishments in Boston, (Freeland, Beard & Co.,) was visited, and by the kindness of Mr. Beard, the books were examined, and the method of payment fully explained. The following questions were then prepared:—

- 1.—Give the number of women employed, Married, —; Single, —; Young persons, —.
- 2.—Give average day wages * (See also page 4.)

* Forewomen and Superintendents should not be reckoned in this average.

- 3.—Average time lost per month for recreation, sickness; other causes.
Total, (not to include holidays),
- 4.—Total amount of wages paid for past six months?
- 5.—Average number during same time?
- 6.—What is the average length of time a woman remains in your employ?
- 7.—In what time will your working-women become wholly a new set?
- 8.—Hours of labor per week?—Hours of labor on Saturday?
- 9.—Average number of hours of over-work in past six months?
- 10.—Average age of women now in your employ, including young persons.
- 11.—Are they obliged, by the nature of the employment, to continue in one position? And if *yes*, what is that position?
- 12.—What is the effect of that position upon health?
- 13.—What domestic, educational, or refining advantage do they have?
- 14.—What are the chances of promotion, as compared with men in the same occupation? And what the chances for women to go into business on their own account?
- 15.—What opportunities are given to beginners to learn the trade?
- 16.—What percentage of your employées have, by their own unaided wage labor, earned in any length of time, \$5,000 or upwards?
- 17.—What societies are there in your vicinity for their especial use or benefit, or where both sexes can meet on an equality?
- 18.—Do they belong to Trade Unions? And if *yes*, what has been your experience, and what is the influence of such 'Trades' Societies upon their character and condition?
- 19.—What are the amusements, and what is the literature chiefly patronized?

As the Women in most employments work by the piece, no method of obtaining their actual earnings seemed practicable, without occupying space equal to the full capacity of the Report. The following plan was therefore adopted, and a table of wages of seven divisions was arranged, as follows:—

TABLE OF WAGES.

Under each occupation give the number of women whose wages for any given month average under, between, and over the several sums given.

Occupation,		Month,				
NUMBER OF WOMEN EARNING PER WEEK—						
\$3 and under.	Between \$3 and \$5.	Between \$5 and \$7.	Between \$7 and \$10.	Between \$10 and \$15.	Between \$15 and \$18.	Over \$18.

This was repeated six times on the last page of the blank and we have found this method to be simple and reliable, and have arranged some of our tables to correspond. Of the 323 of these blanks sent out, *but twenty-two were returned.*

We now proceed to the tabulation of such facts as we have been able to gather, commencing with House and Hotel work, and proceeding with about the same classification as that of the last year.

The averages to Tables No. 1-2-3-8-9-10-18 were obtained by adding the averages in the columns, and dividing by the number of returns. The grand average was obtained by adding these averages and dividing by the number of occupations.

The average to Tables 4-5-6-7-11-12-13-14-17 were obtained by multiplying the number employed of the same occupation in each column by the average wages at the head of the column and dividing by the total number in that occupation as for instance Table No 4. Number employed in making comfortables, at \$2.00 and under, 289; $\$2.00 \times 289 = \578.00 : then 349 employed at over \$2.00, and under \$4.00, average, \$3.00; $\$3.00 \times 349 = \$1,047.00$: then the 59 employed at \$4.00 and under \$6.00, average \$5.00; $\$5.00 \times 59 = \295.00 : then 50 at \$7.00; $\$7.00 \times 50 = \350.00 . Adding these sums together gives 747 persons earning \$2,270 in one week, or an average of \$3.03 to each person. The averages in table No. 16 are obtained by adding highest and lowest and dividing by two.

DIVISION I. DOMESTIC.

SUBDIVISION I. *House Work.*

The kind and amount of housework required of those who are employed in it, depends upon the family in which they are employed. Where there are two or more servants, the work is not laborious compared with other employments, although, as a rule, more confining. In many places where two or more servants are employed, and the duties of each assigned, any work outside thereof is counted an infringement upon their rights; while those doing general housework, do not, as a rule, in city or town, average as long hours, work as hard, or receive as low wages, as those engaged in many of our manufacturing establishments. Their accommodations of room are better, their food more healthful, and their wages afford them

a better chance for saving something from their earnings. Generally where many are employed, the work is lighter, yet we found two or three instances where nine (9) servants were employed, the time of all, with the exception of the housekeeper and seamstress, being fully occupied, from early morning till a late hour in the evening, every day in the week.

In houses where but one domestic is employed, and the family too poor to have all the conveniences of hot and cold water, set-tubs, and the many other modern household improvements, the work is generally held to be the hardest, but there is vastly more freedom, and, in many cases, lighter work, than in larger and better furnished houses. The ease of the work and the happiness of the hired girl, largely depend upon the disposition and knowledge of the housekeeper.

With a good temper, a good knowledge of the work, good system and proper conveniences for the performance of the work, much of the trouble with domestics disappears.

The duties of the cook are simply to prepare food for the table, and her hours of labor are not as long, or as arduous, as a rule, as those of other house domestics. Her wages are higher, and privileges greater, being allowed whatever assistance she may desire from the kitchen girl. First class cooks in genteel families command from \$7.00 to \$9.00 per week, and are not disposed to frequent change of places. Some remain in the same family, for years. Table girls have the entire charge of the dining-room, of all the crockery, glass, and silver ware, besides preparing, and waiting, upon the table at all meals; in large establishments they have the extra duties of dinner parties, arranging lunch, or meal, for friends, callers, or any member of the family, at short notice. These duties compel them, very frequently, to work late at night, during party, theatre, and opera seasons. Nursery girls take the entire care, of the children, day and night. Usually this employment is peculiarly trying, the discipline of the child being often neglected, the mother seeing them but occasionally, after being attired for a call, or walk, and so leaving the needful direction of her children's ways to young girls, whose motives are often better than their judgment, thus rendering it almost an impossibility for them to remain, a long time, in one place in

that capacity ; for most of the class, are too young, and inexperienced, to govern children judiciously.

There are a few elderly persons, employed who are able to retain their places longer, yet not without much discomfort. They are often afraid, to speak of faults, for fear of discharge, or of being disbelieved by their mistresses.

Seamstresses who live wholly in the family, are expected to do the general sewing of the family and work ten hours per day. In some cases they are allowed Saturday afternoon. Most of them have a sewing room by themselves, and are allowed to eat by themselves or with the servants of the house. In many places a sleeping apartment by themselves, is allowed.

Kitchen-girls are expected to do all the washing, cleaning, etc. of the family, unless by some special agreement with the mistress, they have assistance. A half day, or two evenings a week, are usually given to domestics.

The following Table will show the average wages and number of Domestics in the Towns visited. The facts were gathered from the families having the largest number of servants and paying the highest price, and it must be understood that these wages do not represent a general average for the State. No wages are more difficult to obtain than those of this class.

SUBDIVISION 2.—Hotel Work.

In large City Hotels, the work is systematically subdivided, continuous, and very hard. In Country Hotels, there is more freedom, the Hotel bearing a closer resemblance to a large private family. The accommodations are inferior, but the tasks are lighter, there being generally less discipline. Situations are much sought by Table Girls in Summer Hotels on the sea-side or at the Mountains, partly for the increased wages, and partly for the change of scene.

Domestics in such hotels often receive presents from families for special service, and sometimes secure permanent places in rich families in recompense for constant attention to them.

TABLE 2.—Domestic Labor, Hotel Work.

COUNTIES.	COOKS.		CHAMBERMAIDS.		KITCHEN GIRLS.		TABLE GIRLS.	
	No. of Em- ployed.	Average Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.
Essex, . .	4	\$8 17	6	\$4 37	8	\$3 00	8	\$4 50
Norfolk, . .	7	7 94	8	4 50	5	2 91	8	4 50
Suffolk, . .	25	9 00	48	4 11	59	3 00	34	4 51
Middlesex, . .	3	9 00	13	5 00	—	—	—	—
Worcester, . .	24	7 89	42	4 50	10	3 00	15	4 93
Bristol, . .	1	9 00	—	—	2	3 00	2	4 50
Plymouth, . .	2	11 00	3	4 75	4	3 00	4	5 50

Totals and Averages, with board.

Total number employed, . .	337 ;	Gen'l average wages per week, \$5 28
“ “ Cooks, . .	66 ;	“ “ “ “ 8 85
“ “ Chambermaids, . .	120 ;	“ “ “ “ 4 54
“ “ Kitchen Girls, . .	70 ;	“ “ “ “ 2 98
“ “ Table Girls, . .	81 ;	“ “ “ “ 4 74
Average hours of labor per week,		66
General average earnings per year,		\$274 56

SUBDIVISION 3.—Miscellaneous.

The wages of Matrons, or rather their salaries, are from \$600 to \$1,200 a year. The position is generally one of great responsibility and trust, requiring great executive ability.

Stewardesses are paid by the month, and their pay varies according to the style and size of vessels upon which they are

employed. We have been unable to obtain reliable statements, except upon some of the excursion steamers in Boston Harbor, where \$16 per month, with board, are paid.

The wages of Nurses vary from \$6.66 to \$10.33 per week. We obtained statistics of 112, the average wages being \$8.97. These wages are beside board. Some have constant employment, while others have days and weeks between engagements.

DIVISION II.—STORE WORK.

SUBDIVISION 1.—*Dry and Fancy Goods Establishments.*

Book-keepers.—This class is less liable to a change of situation, or to a reduction of wages than most other occupations. The hours of labor are less, the work not so arduous, and the prospects of promotion better. There are those who work twelve hours per day; some few who work only eight and nine, but these are exceptional cases. The average hours of labor per day are ten. Time allowed for dinner one hour, average number of weeks per year about 45. Average price of board \$4.50 per week. But this is governed materially by the educational status, as well as by the salary of individuals. They who desire to be in better society, pay a price for rooms and board, such as their less favored sisters could not afford out of their more scanty earnings.

Saleswomen.—Most saleswomen have the advantage of steadier work than those engaged in very many other employments. They also have their evenings for their own improvement. Wages differ according to knowledge of the business and the stores in which they are employed. Very few command higher wages than \$10.00 per week. The establishments are in operation during the whole year, but many saleswomen are discharged in the dull season, the best and most skilful being retained, they receiving the highest wages, and performing less labor and having better chances of promotion, than most other working women. In most establishments, wages range between \$8.00 and \$4.50 per week.

In those paying these latter prices, work is harder, the working day longer, the department larger, the women oftentimes being required to perform extra labor after the day's work, thus prolonging the day to eleven and twelve hours. It is a well

known fact, that those receiving the lower wages, do not receive enough for their comfortable support, during the six, or ten weeks vacations, which occur twice per year. There are very few who are not obliged to seek new situations after these vacations. These situations require the saleswomen to be well-dressed, yet to do so with their scanty means, leaves them but little to meet other and necessary expenses. In most stores where the largest number of saleswomen is employed at low prices, it is a universal practice to take in new employées at still lower wages, who are obliged to work some weeks in order to become familiar with the special department in which they are placed. Experienced workwomen fare better, and sometimes obtain very desirable situations, good pay and permanent employment. These not seldom board at home, or with friends.

In too many of the stores, the necessary accommodations are so very bad, that it is not possible to speak of them with any forbearance of words.

Cash Girls.—The children employed in stores, offices, and manufactories, as Cash and Errand girls, and other like work, are *quite numerous*. Especial care has been taken to ascertain the number employed, their wages, the kind and amount of work required, whether it was continuous or not throughout the year, their ages, and whether *they had, or had not attended school*.

Those employed as cash girls in Dry and Fancy Goods Stores, are *subject to much injustice*, and menial service. There is hardly a large store in Boston where cash and errand girls are employed, in which they have five minutes leisure at a time. For whenever there is a lull in business during the day or in the morning, before the commencement of business, they must assist in arranging, or rearranging goods, or in supplying a vacancy in some department for a short time. In Fancy Goods Stores they are sometimes put in charge of a counter, where small wares or toys are for sale. These articles are very frail and easily injured, or broken, even careful saleswomen, sometimes breaking them. A case came to our notice of a girl ten years old, who was supplying a vacancy for a day or two, who had the misfortune to let fall a twenty-five cent toy, slightly injuring it. During the day she sold it for its marked value, which

pleased her, as she feared otherwise it would be her own loss. To her astonishment, when Saturday night came, *twenty five cents was deducted from her wages*. On asking an explanation, she was told that it was for injuring the toy. Replying that she had sold it for just what it was marked, she was told that that would make no difference, as she had been careless. Her mother thinking possibly there was some misunderstanding, also asked for an explanation, and she was informed that it was one of their rules, and under no circumstances were exceptions made,—that when a child injured or destroyed an article, of the least value, the price of the article was deducted from its wages and the article withheld as punishment for carelessness. In this case the shop-keeper got *double price* for the toy. Parents unwilling to conform to these rules are told that they can find situations elsewhere for their children.

We found large numbers of children employed in city stores, manufactories, offices, &c., &c., *who attend no school the year through*. Our figures derived from data given under oath to the State Board of Education for the year ending April 1, 1871,* put the non-attendants at over 9,000, or 20 per cent. out of a child population of 46,300, between five and fifteen years of age in Boston. The parents plead necessity, and the unavoidable pressure of poverty,—putting their children to work at the earliest age at which employers will take them.

A case came to our notice of a family of five persons, father, mother and three children. The father jobbed about at \$1.50 a day, at uncertain employment, often losing two days in the week. A son, of 14 years of age, was employed in a Drygoods Store at \$3 a week, and another son, 11½ years old, in an office at \$2 a week. At these rates of pay, the total earnings of the three would be \$468 a year,—a sum hardly keeping them, with cost of rent, clothing for the boys good enough to retain their places, fuel and other indispensable expenses, from positive need of food. The father has not been able to send the children to school but one school term in two years. Look at another case, which came under our notice, that of a widow with a family consisting of her own aged mother, a crippled sister, both dependent upon the widow, whose only income was that of her son, a store lad of 13 years of age, at \$3 a week

* See Report of Board of Education, 1872.

(\$156 per year), and the proceeds of her own labor, at making Patch-work bed-quilts, at \$7 each, she furnishing all materials. One quilt in three (3) weeks, was all she could accomplish, giving her \$2.33 a week, less cost of material. The rent of their two rooms is \$1.50 a week (\$78 a year). Several times a week the son has to carry bundles as far as Dorchester, Roxbury, Cambridge, &c., the rule of the store being, that if the distance does not exceed three miles, his employer pays the fare but one way. This errand work must be performed after the store is closed at night. *He has not attended school for more than two years.*

In a well-known large Drygoods establishment in Boston, are twenty-seven Cash-girls, under twelve (12) years old, thirteen (13) of whom have not been inside of a school-house for eighteen (18) months; and in another store, are employed three little girls *under 10 years old, who have not attended school for 12 months. It is perfectly safe to say, that hundreds of such children are constantly employed in Boston, without any schooling.* Many of them are *but seven (7) or (8) years of age.* They are not truants, and so the truant-officers have no power over them, and they go to make up the very large numbers of children in the State varying in six years past from 20,000 to 35,000, who, by the Tables of the Report of the State Board of Education, are not "accounted for" as at school during any part of the year.

The following Table gives the weekly wages of employées in store and saloon work.

TABLE 3.—Store and Saloon Work.

TOWN OR CITY.	BOOK-KEEPER.		CASH GIRL.		SALESWOMEN.		SALOON.	
	No. of Em- ployed.	Average Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.
Amesbury, .	1	\$8 00	—	—	4	\$4 13	2	\$4 75
Boston, .	132	7 50	244	\$2 50	608	7 38	101	3 33
Brookline, .	1	8 00	1	3 00	4	7 00	2	5 25
Cambridge, .	2	7 50	1	3 00	13	7 88	5	6 33
Charlestown, .	4	7 43	9	2 38	12	7 00	25	5 17
Fitchburg, .	2	8 00	4	3 18	11	7 66	15	4 00
Milford, .	2	8 00	—	—	4	5 50	3	3 25
Roxbury, .	2	8 00	1	2 67	5	6 13	7	3 56
Stoneham, .	1	8 00	—	—	3	5 00	2	3 50
Worcester, .	4	6 50	5	2 75	16	5 12	12	4 16

Totals and Averages.—(Table No. 3)

Total number employed,	. 1,270 ;	Gen'l average wages per week,	\$5 27
" " Book-keepers,	. 151 ;	" " " "	7 69
" " Cash Girls,	. 265 ;	" " " "	2 78
" " Saleswomen,	. 680 ;	" " " "	6 28
" " Saloon,	. 174 ;	With board,	" " " 4 33
Average hours of labor per week,		62½
" number of weeks per year,		44½
" price of board,		\$4 35
General average earnings per year,		234 51

SUBDIVISION II.—*Saloons, etc.*

This subdivision includes Bake-shops, Confectionery Establishments, etc. Book-keepers employed in these establishments work longer hours than book keepers in other departments, they being obliged to act as cashiers, and sometimes having general charge of the business.

Their wages are included in the preceding Table.

The attendants or saleswomen in Bake-shops and Confectionery establishments receive from \$7 to \$4 per week. Those employed in Ice-cream and Confectionery Saloons are paid less wages per week than those employed in most other stores, but nearly all receive their board or meals, furnishing their own lodgings. Their hours of labor are longer, and their work oftentimes harder, more especially during the winter months, having then to serve parties, etc., at late hours. Their work is steady, as a rule, their food is good, and they have enough of it. In many saloons the owners furnish their girls with very comfortable lodging rooms.

DIVISION III.—MANUFACTORIES.

SUBDIVISION I.—*Clothing.*

In the manufacture of all kinds of Clothing, a larger number of women is employed than in any other business. The facts hereinafter given, relate to work carried on in these establishments.

Millions of dollars are paid for work done in families out of the State by the wives and daughters of farmers and wage-laborers, who are compelled by the small incomes of the former

and the low wages of the latter, to compete with the half-starved sewing women of the large cities.

The great complaint of the employées in this department as in most others, is, that, in the season of slack or no work, thousands are thrown out of employment, and that generally in the worst season of the year.

The great variety of earnings of each of these persons, renders it difficult to present a correct idea of their true condition. We have in most cases given the number employed at various wages, instead of reducing each department to an average.

Bed Clothing.

The manufacture of Bed Clothing is subdivided as follows:—
Bed Comfortables, Sheets, Pillow-slips, etc.

This work is principally done in the shops. In the manufacture of Comfortables, the breadths are sewed together by sewing-machines, and the work of knotting and finishing is then given out to be done in families. The price paid is 20 cents a piece. This work is not continuous, the seasons occurring twice during the year and averaging ten weeks each. The average wages paid these workers does not afford them proper food, nor clothes, nor rooms to live in. Custom work is mostly done by hand.

An instance came to our notice of a woman having a sick husband and four children, the oldest ten and a half years, dependent upon her for support. She was obliged to take two rooms in the basement of a wooden house, paying weekly rents of \$2.50. The only income for the entire support of the family was her own uncertain employment as custom Comfortable-maker, at \$5.00 per week, for twenty weeks per year, and \$2.00 per week of her son who is ten and a half years old. During the intervening seasons of her work, she goes out washing, nursing, or at whatever other employment she can find.

During the dull season of her work she frequently has had but fifty cents left to defray living expenses, after paying rent, thus driving the family to subsist upon bakers' bread for the entire week, not even taking tea, butter or meat. The lowest wages in the following table were earned by women in their homes on wholesale work.

TABLE 4.—*Bed-Clothing.*

TOWN OR CITY.	Occupation.	NUMBER OF WOMEN EARNING PER WEEK—				
		\$2 00 and under.	Over \$2 00 and under \$4.00.	\$4 00 and under \$6.	\$6 00 and under \$7.	\$7.00.
Boston, . .	Comfortables,	278	304	—	—	50
" . .	Linen, . .	—	—	241	164	—
Brookline, . .	" . .	—	—	27	—	—
" . .	Comfortables,	11	17	—	—	—
Charlestown, . .	Linen, . .	—	—	58	22	13
Roxbury, . .	" . .	—	—	37	45	15
" . .	Comfortables,	—	28	59	—	—

Totals and Averages.

Total No. employed, . . .	1,369 ;	Gen'l average wages per week, \$4 33
" " on Bed Comfortables, . . .	747 ;	" " " " 3 03
" " " " Linen, . . .	622 ;	" " " " 5 64
Average hours of labor per week,	60
" number of weeks of busy season,	24
" price of board, per week,	\$4 50
General average earnings, per year,	103 92

Boys' Clothing.—Wholesale and Custom.

There are many divisions in this employment. The work is light, but requires constant application, ten hours per day, in the shop, with from one to three hours per evening during the week, to secure the wages accredited to them in the Tables. The average season of work per year does not exceed twenty-four weeks. Most of these employées live in boarding and lodging houses, paying at the rate of \$4.50 per week for board, occupying rooms, many of them, with four and six persons. They are seldom allowed the privilege of sitting in the parlor, or family room, while at work, or the privilege of the washroom, the denial of which necessitates them to turn their lodging-room into sitting and wash-room, often without fire, or the needful accommodations of a sleeping-room. Those occupying rooms in lodging-houses are in most cases practically shut out from all home influences.

The lowest wage in the following table are the earning of young persons of from 14 to 18, mostly new beginners.

TABLE 5.—*Boys' Clothing.*

TOWN OR CITY.	Occupation.	WHOLESALE. Number of Women Earning per Week—			
		\$2.00 and under.	Over \$2.00 and under \$4.00.	\$4.00 and under \$6.00.	\$6.00 and under \$7.00.
Boston, . .	Jacket Makers,	—	—	136	124
" . .	Boys' Suits, .	302	109	254	149
Roxbury, . .	" " .	—	—	100	20

Totals and Averages—(Wholesale).

Total No. employed, . .	1,194 ;	Gen'l average wages per week, \$1 88
" " Jacket Makers, . .	260 ;	" " " " 5 71
" " Boys' Suits . .	934 ;	" " " " 4 06
Average hours of labor per week,		60
" number of weeks of busy season,		34
" price of board,		\$4 50
General average earnings per year,		165 92

TABLE 5.—*Continued.*

TOWN OR CITY.	Occupation.	CUSTOM. Number of Women Earning per Week—			
		\$3.00 to \$5.00.	\$5.00 and under \$7.00.	\$7.00 and under \$8.00.	\$8.00 to \$9.00.
Boston, . .	Jacket Makers,	—	36	28	51
" . .	Boys' Suits, .	309	57	46	53

Totals and Averages—(Custom).

Total No. employed, . .	580 ;	Gen'l average wages per week, \$6 28
" " Jacket Makers, . .	115 ;	" " " " 7 47
" " Boys' Suits, . .	465 ;	" " " " 5 10
Average hours of labor per week,		60
" number of weeks of busy season,		24
" price of board,		\$4 50
General average earnings per year,		150 72

Bugle Trimmings, etc.

The greater number employed, in this industry are young persons, whose ages do not exceed 18 years. The rooms in which they work, are low in the ceiling, receiving ventilation from windows opening at the lower sash, only. The rooms are up three and four flights of stairs, with no *accommodations whatever*. They all work by the piece.

In the establishment visited, the rules of the work-rooms require that all shall remain in them, 10 hours per day; any violation of these rules, without the permission of overseer or book-keeper, insures discharge, and *all money* credited to them is withheld as a forfeit for this violation.

This work is light and agreeable, the wages paid for it however afford only a living during the short busy season, which does not exceed 20 weeks per year. When this work fails, those who are without homes, and are living in boarding-houses, are obliged to seek employment at once in some other branch of industry, or to live by other means.

TABLE 6.—*Bugle Trimming, etc.*

TOWN OR CITY.	WHOLESALE. Number of Women Earning per Week—					
	\$2.00 and under.	Over \$2.00 and under \$4.00.	\$4.00 and under \$6.00.	\$6.00 and under \$7.00.	\$7.00.	\$8.00.
Boston, . . .	97	201	286	44	50	39
Roxbury, . . .	40	104	64	35	27	—
Totals, . . .	137	305	350	79	77	39

Totals and Averages—(Wholesale).

Total number employed,	987
Average wages per week,	\$4 36
“ hours of labor per week,	60
“ number of weeks of busy season,	20
“ price of board,	\$4 50
General average earnings per year,	87 20

TABLE 7.—*Bugle Trimming, etc.*

TOWN OR CITY.	CUSTOM. Number of Women Earning per Week—					
	\$2.00 and under.	Over \$2.00 and under \$4.00.	\$4.00 and under \$6.00.	\$6.00 and under \$8.00.	\$8.00.	\$9.00.
Boston, . . .	94	85	88	55	14	20
Roxbury, . . .	—	—	66	38	12	—
Totals, . . .	94	85	154	93	26	20

Totals and Averages.—(Custom).

Total number employed,	472
Average wages per week,	\$4 77
“ hours of labor per week,	60
“ number of weeks of busy season,	16
“ price of board,	\$4 50
General average earnings per year,	76 32

Caps and Silk Hats.

The number employed at Hat and Cap making, in eight wholesale manufacturing establishments visited, is 466, receiving the following wages per week, 24 persons \$10.00, 46 \$9.00, 53 \$8.00, 47 \$7.00, 64 \$5.75, 48 \$4.50, 125 \$3.00; the lowest wages are paid to learners. The wages in custom establishments are somewhat higher, some earning as high as \$15.00 or \$12.00 per week.

The busy season lasts about 24 weeks. Hours of labor per day 10, time allowed for dinner one hour. Nearly all work by the piece, but all are expected to work in the shop during the regular hours. Workrooms, with but two or three exceptions, were up three and four flights of stairs, and badly ventilated, in which all are obliged to sit, as closely as they can and work.

There are no accommodations whatever, save water for drinking purposes. Nearly all carry their dinners. Most of these working-women are living in boarding and lodging-houses, paying on an average \$4.50 per week for board. Those who have lodging-rooms pay between \$1.50 to \$3.00 each, for

their room, getting their food from bake-houses, or table board at a boarding-house. Their rooms with few exceptions are scantily furnished and without heat, or facilities for it, unless furnished by the lodgers at their own expense. Very few can afford this, and as a consequence during the winter evenings, they are obliged to sit with shawl or cloak over their shoulders while at work, from two to three hours every evening, during the busy season of their work.

Cardigan Jackets.

Average wages about \$4 00 per week ; busy season lasts from 16 to 20 weeks per year. Most of the workrooms are up four and five flights of stairs, rooms dark, low in ceiling, only means of ventilation from lower sash of windows. There are many young persons employed, in this branch of industry about 15 years of age, whose weekly wages average from \$1.50 to \$2 00.

Corsets.

This trade employs a large number of work-women. It embraces two divisions, general manufacturing and custom work, and includes four subdivisions, General work, Shapers, Cutters, Machine-Operators. The average weekly wages, Shapers \$10.00, Machine-Operators \$8.00 to \$10.00, General work \$6 00 to \$7.00. Average wages per week \$5.50. Wholesale and Custom work are both performed by the same persons. All work by the piece, with the exception of those doing general work ; busy season of the year about 24 weeks. Hours of labor per day 10, workrooms the same as those described in former employments.

Many of these women take their meals cold in their rooms, as there are no facilities for a fire unless furnished by themselves. During dull times there is much anxiety and want experienced while in pursuit of work. It is not uncommon for them to *live for weeks without tasting meat, tea or coffee.*

One instance came to our notice of a girl who had not tasted *meat, butter, cheese, tea, or coffee for seven weeks.* This was during the busiest season of her work, to curtail her expenses that she might save money sufficient from her average weekly wages of \$7.00, to defray room rent during the weeks of her enforced idleness.

Dolls' Clothing, etc.

We found upwards of five hundred girls and women employed in making Dolls' Clothing, at piece work, during the busy season of sixteen weeks per year. Average wages per week \$3.50. Hours of labor per day, 10. Nearly all carry their dinners. Many of these working-women are married, doing their housework before coming and after returning from work.

Their workrooms, accommodations, and manner of living, the same as before described.

Dress and Cloak-Making.

The manufacture of Dresses and Cloaks, includes two divisions, Wholesale and Custom.

Those employed at work upon dresses, do plain sewing only, as prepared for them, sharing no responsibility of cutting or basting.

As indicated by the tables, the wages vary from \$1.50 to \$18.00 per week, the latter being paid only in very rare instances to fore-women or cutters, who have the entire care and responsibility of a department. The former are young girls, beginners, whom we found making cloaks for 25 cents a piece. The most they could make was two per day, very many not averaging more than eight per week, and some not more than six. All work by the piece and many carry their work home, working from two to three hours per evening.

The accommodations of most of these workrooms, with some few notable exceptions, are bad, though some few of the most reliable firms, have well-furnished workrooms.

TABLE 8.—*Dresses and Cloaks.*

BOSTON.				WORCESTER.		ROXBURY.	
Wholesale.		Custom.		Custom.		Custom.	
No. of Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.
19	\$15 00	14	\$18 00	10	\$15 00	4	\$15 00
85	13 00	12	15 00	7	14 00	17	14 00
149	12 00	46	12 00	19	12 00	35	12 00
164	10 00	54	10 00	11	10 00	42	10 00
369	8 00	124	8 00	24	8 00	67	8 00
233	7 50	146	7 50	34	6 00	58	7 50
248	6 00	186	6 00	23	5 00	61	6 00
123	5 00	154	5 00	—	—	—	—
180	4 50	109	4 50	—	—	—	—
147	3 00	—	—	—	—	—	—
228	1 50	—	—	—	—	—	—

Totals and Averages—(Wholesale and Custom).

Total No. employed—Wholesale, 1,945 ;	Average wages per week,	\$7 77
“ “ “ Custom, 1,257 ;	“ “ “ “	9 93
Average hours of labor per week,		60
“ number of weeks of busy season,		24
“ price of board,		\$4 50
“ earnings per year—Wholesale,		186 48
“ “ “ “ Custom,		238 32

Dress Trimmings.

Comprised in this trade is the manufacture, at wholesale and retail, of every kind of Trimming used upon dresses or cloaks.

Most of the Manufactories are up three, four and five flights of stairs. The rooms are low in the ceiling, and badly ventilated. Most of these dress trimmings are made upon machines, set as closely as they can be placed together. Hours of labor per day, 10. Length of busy season, 16 weeks. Nearly all work by the piece, some few exceptions, working by the week, the average wages being \$6.00, those working by the piece receiving about \$4.50 per week.

Nearly all live in boarding-houses and carry their dinners to the work-room.

A large number of children from 9 to 12 years of age, are employed in this business at weekly wages of \$1.50 to \$3.00. Their work consists in reeling and packing goods for trade, etc. It was ascertained for a certainty, that thirteen of these children, between the ages of 10 and 12, *had not attended school for the past two years.*

Furs.

Fur-sewers' wages range from \$5.50 to \$10.00 per week. Hours of labor per day 10. Busy season 24 weeks. Average price of board per week \$4.50; workrooms, and accommodations as before described.

Gloves and Mittens.

The most of this work is done upon machines, but it requires skill and experience to perform it. Many seek this employment for a livelihood, although they are obliged to work at it a number of months, sometimes a year, before they can earn more than \$5.50 per week. The busy season of the year lasts about 30 weeks.

Hoop Skirts.

Wages vary between \$1.50 to \$12.00 per week, very few earning \$12.00 and only those who work upon custom work; the average is \$5.00 or less per week, those earning \$1.50 are young persons and beginners. Most manufacturers furnish their own machines and materials for the manufacture of their goods, or if furnished by employées, compensation is given. There are, however, exceptions to this rule where the employer requires the employées to furnish all sewing materials without remuneration. With such employers discharging of help and reduction of wages are frequent. Almost all work by the piece, 10 hours per day. Busy season lasts 30 weeks. Average price of board, \$4.50 per week. None of this work is carried home. When this work fails, employment is sought in other branches of industry wherever there is the least possible chance of its being obtained. The short seasons of work, low wages and frequent changes in the various employments render it almost an impossibility for a girl to become a practical worker, or earn a comfortable support in whatever division of labor, she is fortunate enough to obtain work.

Infants' Clothing and Ladies' Under Clothing.

This work is extensively done at both shop and home. Much of it is performed upon machines, and by the piece, with the few exceptions of those who embroider, with needle by hand, upon flannel, silk, etc. Much of the work done at home is performed by married women; those who receive a partial support at home, do this work for pocket money, taking it home in preference to shop life, often working at lower prices, the effect of which is to lower the wage of the shop-girls.

The wages vary according to the material used and the style of garments. Much of this work is done upon Machine, and time, skill, and taste, are required in the making up of Infants' wardrobes. Weekly wages of machine operators from \$3.00 to \$8.00. In Ladies' Under Clothing, the wages of machine operators are \$6.00 to \$10.00 per week. Those employed in finishing garments from, \$5.00 to \$8.00 per week. The season of work is about 30 weeks.

In this connection it may be said, that working "out of shop" has a different meaning when applied to women and to men. Women working "out of shop," work at their own homes being largely composed of a class not wholly dependent on labor, but who are a sort of *amateur workers* having the general means of support, but working at intervals (*at lower than market prices*), to get a little money to help dress themselves or families, the real effect of which is, to bring down the wage of those who are obliged to work for a living. This competition is very disastrous to the regular employées.

Now the man who works "out of shop," is the regular and constant workman, working in the open and healthful air, at established rates, and not interfering with the wages of his brother workmen.

Linen Collars.

The wages of linen collar makers average higher, than those in the manufacture of paper collars, but the season is shorter, averaging only 16 weeks per year. Highest wages paid \$10.00 per week. Lowest \$3.00. Nearly all work by the piece, 10 hours per day. When this work fails they are obliged to seek employment, in other branches. Many obtain work in some one of the subdivisions of men's clothing, basting or finishing,

coats, pantaloons, or vests, which is much more laborious and not as remunerative, although steadier employment; occasionally one finds a situation in a store, or saloon, though but few resort to the latter, preferring more retired employment.

Men's Clothing.

One of the employments which furnishes more work than any other, is the manufacture of men's clothing, but it requires more skilful labor, longer hours of toil, and to the unlearned less wages per week than in most other employments, owing to the fact that better stitches and taste are required in the making and finishing of the various kinds of garments, than is required in most other manufactures.

This trade embraces two divisions Wholesale and Custom. The former is subdivided into coat-basters, coat-finishers, pantaloon-basters, pantaloon-finishers, vest-basters, vest-finishers, Machine operators, button-hole makers, and presswomen. The work is much of it very laborious, especially in coat-making, requiring good health and strength on the part of those who work at it. In the manufacturing departments, the busy season averages 32 weeks, but the wages paid are lower than those paid in custom trade, which is the most profitable, and responsible requiring more skill and an apprenticeship. In the Custom, the season lasts on an average 24 weeks per year, though frequently there is a reduction in this time, disappointing alike, employer and employée. All work by the piece. Hours of work in the shop 10, nearly all taking work home, working from two to four hours each evening, which only renders it possible for them to obtain the sums accredited to them on pay rolls. Workrooms are most of them up three and four, flights of stairs, very few having accommodations of any sort. Some few have the modern conveniences, but fully one-half, are not provided even with water for drinking. This is particularly true of the custom workshops. Reliable wholesale establishments, many of them, are much better provided in this respect. Those employed in any of the subdivisions seldom change for employment in any other branch of industry, this employment being steadier than most any other in which women are engaged. A glance at the average wages of workingwomen employed in this department shows that they do not afford a comfortable support

even to those whose average wages do not exceed \$6.00 per week, but 34 weeks per year. It shows too that the frugal, industrious workingwoman, with close application of from 12 to 15 hours per day, has no prospect of receiving wages sufficient to enable her to live as she ought, for she ought not to live as many of them are compelled to live, in places and rooms wholly unfit to protect them from cold, settled disease, or daily contact with degrading associations, which the average health of body and mind, is incapable of long resisting, though it is not to be denied that some of the *most skilful and regularly employed* are able and do save, what is considered by their associates to be, a considerable sum of money. It is hardly necessary to suggest here, that this lack of steady employment and proper pay for women, leads to results that manifest their dreadful work in every large city of the civilized world—filling the ranks of a class, as surely destined to the brief life of utter outcasts, a life of hopeless misery and pollution, as poison leads to death.

TABLE 9.—Men's Clothing—Wholesale.

CITIES.	COAT BASTERS.		COAT FINISHERS.		PANT BASTERS.		PANT FINISHERS.		VEST BASTERS.		VEST FINISHERS.	
	No. of Employed.	Average Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.
Boston,	55	\$8 00	122	\$8 00	—	—	53	\$8 00	—	—	—	—
"	149	7 50	179	7 50	—	—	85	7 50	107	\$7 50	142	\$7 50
"	136	7 00	163	7 00	79	\$7 00	183	7 00	140	7 00	145	7 00
"	294	6 00	249	6 00	205	6 00	179	6 00	207	6 00	197	6 00
"	241	5 50	142	5 50	189	5 50	—	—	231	5 50	145	5 50
"	144	5 00	240	5 00	174	5 00	148	5 00	—	—	—	—
"	357	4 50	295	4 50	235	4 50	203	4 50	212	4 50	302	4 50
"	200	4 00	176	4 00	212	4 00	117	4 00	259	4 00	194	4 00
"	129	3 75	227	3 75	127	3 75	192	3 75	—	—	—	—
"	401	3 00	201	3 00	100	3 00	143	3 00	246	3 00	—	—
"	—	—	158	2 00	—	—	137	2 00	288	2 00	—	—
"	138	1 50	138	1 50	169	1 50	172	1 50	—	—	180	2 00
Cambridge,	12	7 00	18	7 00	—	—	7	7 00	—	—	143	1 50
"	14	6 00	20	6 00	18	6 00	10	6 00	—	—	—	—
"	28	5 50	12	5 50	4	5 50	9	5 50	—	—	—	—
Charlestown,	16	8 00	18	8 00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
"	20	7 00	14	7 00	40	7 00	19	7 00	—	—	6	8 00
"	13	6 00	4	6 00	15	6 00	21	6 00	—	—	—	—
"	—	—	—	—	—	—	17	5 50	27	6 00	—	6 00
Fitchburg,	12	7 00	15	7 00	10	7 00	14	7 00	18	5 50	23	5 50
"	—	—	4	6 00	16	6 00	19	6 00	5	7 00	14	7 00
"	—	—	—	—	4	5 50	21	5 50	4	6 00	15	6 00
Worcester,	28	7 00	28	7 00	9	7 00	—	—	11	5 50	14	5 50
"	—	—	24	6 00	16	6 00	10	6 00	5	7 00	24	7 00
"	—	—	—	—	14	5 50	18	5 50	15	6 00	14	6 00
"	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	5 50	10	5 50

TABLE 9.—Continued.

CITIES.	FOREWOMEN.		MACHINE OPERATORS.		BUTTON-HOLE MAKERS.		PRESSWOMEN.	
	No of Em- ployed.	Average Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.
Boston, .	8	\$15 00	4	\$15 00	-	-	-	-
" .	13	12 00	28	12 00	18	\$12 00	2	\$12 00
" .	15	10 00	104	10 00	24	10 00	14	10 00
" .	19	8 00	119	8 00	15	8 00	16	8 00
" .	7	7 00	176	7 00	17	7 00	-	-
" .	-	-	126	6 00	28	6 00	18	6 00
" .	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	5 00
Cambridge, .	-	-	2	9 00	2	9 00	-	-
" .	-	-	3	8 00	3	8 00	1	8 00
" .	-	-	4	7 00	-	-	-	-
" .	-	-	-	-	1	6 00	1	6 00
Charlestown, .	2	8 00	4	8 00	1	8 00	1	8 00
" .	1	7 00	17	7 00	2	7 00	1	7 00
" .	-	-	13	6 00	4	6 00	1	6 00
Fitchburg, .	1	8 00	4	8 00	-	-	-	-
" .	-	-	2	7 00	1	7 00	-	-
" .	-	-	3	6 00	2	6 00	1	6 00
Worcester, .	-	-	8	10 00	2	10 00	-	-
" .	1	8 00	7	8 00	-	-	1	8 00
" .	2	7 00	5	7 00	3	7 00	1	7 00
" .	1	6 00	-	-	2	6 00	1	6 00

Totals and Averages—(Wholesale).

Total No. employed, .	12,507 ;	Gen'l average wages per week, \$6 53
" " Coat Basters, .	2,387 ;	" " " " 5 84
" " Coat Finishers, .	2,447 ;	" " " " 5 80
" " Pant Basters, .	1,665 ;	" " " " 5 31
" " Pant Finishers, .	1,777 ;	" " " " 5 53
" " Vest Basters, .	1,783 ;	" " " " 5 44
" " Vest Finishers, .	1,571 ;	" " " " 5 50
" " Forewomen, .	70 ;	" " " " 8 72
" " Machine Operators, .	629 ;	" " " " 8 27
" " Button-hole Makers, .	125 ;	" " " " 7 68
" " Presswomen, .	62 ;	" " " " 7 35
Average hours of labor per week, .	.	60
" number of weeks of busy season, .	.	34
" price of board per week, .	.	\$4 50
General average earnings per year, .	.	222 02

TABLE 10.—Men's Clothing—Custom.

TOWN OR CITY.	COAT MAKERS.		PANT MAKERS.		VEST MAKERS.	
	No. of Employed.	Average Wages.	Employed.	Wages.	Employed.	Wages.
Boston, . .	17	\$12 00	20	\$12 00	29	\$12 00
“ . .	56	10 00	41	10 00	45	10 00
“ . .	124	9 00	—	—	—	—
“ . .	139	8 00	72	8 00	110	8 00
“ . .	34	7 00	154	7 00	119	7 00
“ . .	22	6 00	161	6 00	168	6 00
“ . .	48	5 50	68	5 50	84	5 50
Brookline, . .	4	8 00	2	8 00	3	8 00
Cambridge, . .	16	8 00	—	—	—	—
Charlestown, . .	25	7 50	20	7 50	27	7 50
“ . .	—	—	18	5 50	28	5 50
Fitchburg, . .	30	8 00	21	8 00	—	—
“ . .	—	—	13	7 00	10	7 00
Lynn, . .	18	10 00	15	10 00	16	10 00
“ . .	4	8 00	10	8 00	4	8 00
“ . .	—	—	5	7 00	3	7 00
Milford, . .	6	9 00	4	9 00	5	9 00
Worcester, . .	38	10 00	10	10 00	20	10 00
“ . .	35	8 00	9	8 00	18	8 00
“ . .	11	6 50	18	6 50	26	6 50

Totals and Averages.—Clothing.

Total number employed, . .	2,003 ;	Gen'l average wages per week, \$8 05
“ “ Coat-makers, . .	627 ;	“ “ “ “ 8 26
“ “ Pant-makers, . .	661 ;	“ “ “ “ 7 94
“ “ Vest-makers, . .	715 ;	“ “ “ “ 7 94
Average hours of labor per week,		60
“ number of weeks of busy season,		24
“ price of board,		\$4 50
General average earnings per year,		193 20

Milliners.

In the establishments visited there were 59 who received \$12.00 per week 63—\$10.00,—207, \$8.00,—154, \$7.00,—309, \$6.00,—113, \$4.50,—60 at \$3.00 ; number 965. Hours of labor per day 10 ; average number of weeks of busy season 16.

Neckties.

Wages in this employment are lower than in most other branches and the seasons shorter, those employed largely

representing other, branches of industry, working at this only at intervals during vacations in their own special employments. The highest wages \$7.00, the lowest 33 cents, the latter having been received by about 54 girls; 49 received about \$1.00 per week, they having sought this business from necessity to earn something and in preference to idleness, during the vacations in their special employments.

Paper Collars.

Wages of Paper Collar makers vary from \$1.50 to \$6.00 per week. The greater number get \$4.50 per week. All work by the piece, and all are expected to work 10 hours per day. The busy season lasts 30 weeks. Most of the employées live in lodging-houses, occupying rooms with three and four persons, and living, principally, upon bakers' food, to bring their living expenses within their average wages of \$4.50 per week.

One instance came to our notice of four persons occupying an attic room of ordinary size, with but one window, with two broken panes of glass, the door without a fastening, the plastering broken off in several places; furniture consisting of two beds, one wash-stand, one bureau, three chairs, and a cracked mirror; each occupant paying \$1.50 rent per week; there were no conveniences for a fire, and they took their meals of bakers' cold food, in their own room.

We give this not as an exceptional case, but as one of the many instances of work-girls who are obliged, from their scant wages and uncertain work, to live in this manner.

They could not obtain better accommodations because their work was not sufficiently remunerative to furnish more comfortable homes. This happens, in most cases, among that class of workers whose season of work does not exceed 20 weeks per year.

The sanitary condition of most boarding and lodging houses, in which these low-paid workingwomen are obliged to live, is bad, and a law should be enforced that would make it practically impossible for houses to exist, or compel the landlords owning them, and who extort such exorbitant rents, to put them in as comfortable a condition as the stables of their horses.

Shirts.

In one Shirt Factory there are employed from four to five hundred women, the greater portion of them, working by the week. Machine operators all work by the piece with wages from \$4.50 to \$10.00 per week. Price of board in boarding-houses \$3.50; in private families \$4.00.

Very many are obliged to board in the boarding-houses, because of the scarcity of private houses.

The workrooms in this factory are low and badly ventilated. The subdivisions of the Shirt business are as follows:—cutter, stitcher, bosom-maker, wristband-maker, button-hole-maker, and laundress.

Laundry work is also subject to subdivision, as washers, ironers, polishers and packers. The busy season of work lasts 8 months.

TABLE 11.—Shirts.

O C C U P A T I O N .	B O S T O N .		W A T E R T O W N .	
	No. of Employed.	Average Wages.	Employed.	Wages.
Cutters,	24	\$10 00	4	\$12 00
Machine operatives,	27	8 50	20	10 00
“ “	54	7 50	28	8 00
“ “	—	—	47	7 00
Shirt Bosoms,	159	6 00	20	4 50
Wristbands,	194	5 00	58	6 50
Finishers,	184	4 50	134	3 50
“	83	3 50	137	2 00
General work,	124	3 00	—	—

Totals and Averages.

Total number employed,	1,297; gen'l average wages per week, \$5 96
“ “ Cutters,	28; “ “ “ “ 10 28
“ “ Mach. operators,	176; “ “ “ “ 7 88
“ “ Shirt Bosoms,	179; “ “ “ “ 5 83
“ “ Wristbands,	252; “ “ “ “ 5 34
“ “ Finishers,	538; “ “ “ “ 3 46
“ “ General work,	124; “ “ “ “ 3 00
Average hours of labor per week,	60
“ number of weeks of the busy season,	32
“ price of board,	\$4 50.
General average earnings per year,	190 72

Straw Works.

In one of the manufactories visited by us, the works were not in full operation. They were running on an average 3 days per week.

Nearly 200 Straw workers are employed in this establishment, during the active season of work which averages about 24 weeks per year. Many of these are dependent upon this employment alone for their support during the entire year, having homes so remote that their limited means will not admit of their incurring the expense of a journey semi-annually. In most of the manufactories a *few* are employed steadily through the year. This work is carried out largely to families, many of whom employ outside sewers at weekly wages averaging from \$1.50 to \$7.00, per week. These factories are pleasantly located. Many of the rooms are uncomfortable from heat and the odor from chemicals required in the preparation of the straw for sewing, and in sizing and pressing after being sewed into bonnets and hats.

TABLE 12.—*Straw Goods.*

TOWN OR CITY.	NUMBER OF WOMEN EARNING PER WEEK—				
	\$3.00 and under.	Over \$3.00 and under \$5.00	\$5.00 and under \$7.00.	\$7.00 to \$8.00.	\$8.00.
Fitchburg, . . .	136	194	200	105	—
Foxborough, . . .	—	—	204	200	55
Mansfield, . . .	137	183	48	—	—
Milford, . . .	203	146	123	56	36
Worcester, . . .	—	—	38	12	30
Totals, . . .	476	523	613	373	121
Total number employed,					2,106
Average wages per week,					\$5 20
“ hours of labor per week,					60
“ number of weeks of busy season,					24
“ price of board,					\$4 00
“ earnings per year,					124 80

SUBDIVISION II.—*Fancy Articles.**Britannia.*

There are but few employed in Britannia work. This work is light with average wages per week of \$6.00; work steady. Hours of labor 10 per day; price of board per week \$4.50.

Book Clasps, etc.

This business employs a large number. Nearly all work by the week at an average of \$8.00, some few receiving \$10.00.

Hours of labor 10; number of weeks' work per season 20.

Carpet Bags.

This business employs a large number, many of whom take their work to their homes. Most bags are made upon machines. All work by the piece. Hours of labor 10 per day. The season lasts about 20 weeks. Average wages from \$3.00 to \$8.00 per week.

China Decorators.

But few are employed in this business as it requires artistic skill to perform it, and an apprenticeship has to be served of about six months to enable workers to earn the lowest wages paid. Experienced persons earn \$12.00 per week; others earn \$8.00 and \$6.00, the average being about \$7.00. All work by the week. Hours of labor 10, time allowed for dinner one hour. The season lasts 24 weeks.

Fans.

This business is quite extensively carried on. Wages are very small, season short, not exceeding 12 weeks per year. Highest wages \$7.00; lowest \$2.00 per week. Those receiving \$7.00 per week are exceptions. Very many young persons are employed whose wages vary from \$2.00 to \$4.00 per week, and who are living in their own homes. All work by the piece.

Papier Maché and Passepartout.

Of those engaged in this employment the most skilled are Germans. The greater proportion of this work is done by the piece. Average wages from \$6.00 to \$12.00 per week. Length of season 34 weeks.

Portfolios.

But few girls are employed in this business. The work requires great skill in cutting and preparing, and requires apprenticeship on the part of those engaging in it. Their wages are better than in most employments in fancy articles, averaging about \$10.00 per week for 36 weeks per year. Hours of labor 10.

Perfumery.

There are many young girls employed in this branch of industry whose weekly wages average from \$3.00 to \$7.00. Number of weeks' work per year 45; price of board \$3.00 and \$4.50 per week.

Jewelry.

This business is done principally in Attleboro', Mansfield, and Wrentham. The buildings are mostly of brick. Most of the rooms where the nature of the work will admit it, have good ventilation. Jewelry work is subdivided into Clock-making, Gold Chains, Gold Leaf, Gilding and Stamping, Jet-work, Silver plating, Spectacles, Thimbles and Watches. This work is not laborious, but requires skill, experience and close attention on the part of the workers. Those who make gold chains average higher wages than those in other departments. Those earning but \$4.00 and \$5.00 per week, are young persons, and just commencing work. It requires from six months to one year, to become expert at the business and to earn good wages. Most of the higher paid work is agreeable, and a more intelligent class of girls is found than in most other manufactures, in which women are employed. Many of them are from families in the surrounding towns, and are boarding in private families paying weekly-board of \$4.50. The hours of labor are 10,—nearly all work by the piece.

Gold Leaf and Foil.

This work requires the careful exclusion of air from the room as the leaf is light, and great skill is required in handling it. Most of the girls engaged in this are young persons, not over fifteen years of age.

TABLE 13.—*Jewelry.*

OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF WOMEN EARNING PER WEEK—			
	Under \$4 50.	\$4.50 to \$7.00.	\$7.00 to \$9.00.	\$9.00 to \$13 00.
Clocks,	29	24	32	—
Gold Chains,	—	—	24	4
Gold Leaf,	8	42	—	—
Gilding and Stamping,	36	—	29	—
Jet Work,	38	26	35	—
Silver Plating,	20	30	85	54
Spectacles,	—	18	47	—
Thimbles,	15	43	15	—
Watches,	—	14	145	90
Totals,	146	197	412	148

Total number employed,	903
Average wages per week,	\$7 43
“ hours of labor,	10
“ number of weeks of busy season,	45
“ price of board,	\$4 50
General average earnings per year,	334 35

SUBDIVISION III.—*Miscellaneous Manufactures.*

Bonnet Bleacheries.

Those employed in this business work by the week. Hours of labor 10. Busy season lasts 20 weeks.

The special work of women engaged in this employment consists principally in sewing straw and making over bonnets and hats for bleaching.

Their workrooms are usually badly ventilated, and heated to a high temperature from the necessity of the business.

When this work is done, these workwomen find employment in other branches of industry; many taking sale vests and boys' suits to make; making black satin vests for eighteen and twenty-five cents a piece. This supplemental work of Bonnet-bleachers requires close diligence 12 hours per day, to complete two entire vests, pressed and put up for the manufacturer. Boys' suits are made for \$1.00 and \$1.25 per suit, and the only possible way of making five suits per week, is to work from 12 to 15 hours per day. This applies to those who

make them entirely by hand. The highest price paid is \$1.25 per suit. Those making them by machine receive \$1.00 a piece, making from seven to eight per week according to the amount of work required.

TABLE 14.—*Bleacheries.*

TOWN OR CITY.	NUMBER OF WOMEN EARNING PER WEEK—				
	\$5.00 to \$6.00.	\$6.00.	\$7.00.	\$8.00.	\$9.00.
Boston,	14	5	12	—	4
Charlestown, . . .	—	1	4	3	—
Fitchburg,	1	3	—	2	—
Worcester,	4	2	3	—	—
Totals,	19	11	19	5	4
Total number employed,					58
Average wages per week,					\$6 54
“ hours of labor,					10
“ number of weeks of busy season,					20
“ price of board,					\$4 50
“ earnings per year,					130 80

Chairs.

Large numbers of women and children are employed in chair-making. The greater part of the work is laborious and heavy, and frequently causes enlargement of the wrist, rendering it necessary after working sometime to seek lighter employment; average wages per week from \$2.00 to \$8.00, price of board \$3.00 to \$4.50 per week. Hours of labor per day 10; number of weeks per year 45; workrooms in the city are many of them unfinished and *without accommodations*.

There are many families who take this work home. The total number employed in the establishments visited was 653. Of these, 66 earn \$2.00 and under per week; 227 between \$2.00 and \$5.00; 266 between \$5.00 and \$6.50; 144 from \$6.50 to \$8.50. The general weekly average wages are \$4.56.

*Cotton.**

In the Cotton Mills at Fitchburg, the women and children are pale, crooked and sickly looking. The women appear dis-

* For wage, etc., see Class IV. Division 10.

spirited, and the children without the bloom of childhood in their cheeks, or the elasticity that belongs to that age. The houses in which they live, keep house and board, are badly built, scarcely any attention being paid to the requirements of health. Many of them are old and tumbling down. It was manifest in several streets we visited, that the oldest buildings in the village had been set apart, for mill operatives. One of the owners told us it was no use to whitewash, paint, or put on other repairs, for the operatives were just as well suited without them, and as regards their health, *he had never known one of the operatives being sick or dying*. Upon visiting the families occupying these houses we found one family which had three children sicken and die with canker-rash, and another which lost two children, making in all *five children* who died within 27 days in the month of March 1871. It seems impossible that the landlord should not have known of the sickness of this household and of the death of the children, inasmuch as the rent becoming due while they were sick, he visited the house, braving the infection and demanding his dues. These were paid, leaving the family in a condition of actual suffering, from which the intervention of the children's Sunday School Teacher saved them. These children are reported as Factory-children, breathing the air of a badly ventilated mill and of a badly ventilated house, reported by its owner as not needing whitewash, paint or repairs.—[*Quere*. Is there no connection between the sanitary condition of such a house, and the recuperative power of the invalids?]

In a Cotton Mill at Canton, employing about 50 women and children, boys and girls, it was ascertained to a certainty, that they habitually employ children under 10 years of age; we found at work 7 children whose ages were given as 9 and under. The overseer and parents admitted that such was the fact, though the children are kept in school during school term in the district in which they live, situated one mile and a half from their homes. Two of these children walk a distance of two miles to their work in the factory, regularly twice a day, bringing their dinner and working ten hours and a half per day. One intelligent girl said she had known one of them to fall asleep while at work three times, and had it not been for the

timely assistance of the overseer in one instance, life would have been destroyed, instantly; she also declared *that the cries of these children, during the winter on their return home from work at night, and in the morning is no uncommon sound; furthermore it has excited the people living in houses along the way, so far that they have interfered with it, but it availed nothing with parents or superintendent.* There are 27 married women at work in this mill who have families of children, and who attend to their household duties in addition to mill work. One remarked there was no Sabbath for her as she had to do her housework on that day.

Laundries.

Wages in laundries vary from \$6.00 to \$18.00 per week. Those receiving the latter price, do up the finest embroideries and laces that are imported. Those receiving \$12 00 and \$10.00, work principally at ironing shirts and linen for the trade, some of those receiving but \$6.00 wash all kinds of clothes; others do nothing but iron plain clothes. Those who receive \$9.00 and \$8.00 do the fine ironing of families; most of these workwomen are living in their own homes. Much of this work is very fatiguing; and but few are able to endure the labor from month to month. A woman carrying on the business extensively in all its parts, remarked that more frequent changes occur among the washers and ironers of family washing and ironing, than with those doing finer work.

In Boston the number employed, in the places visited, was 251. Of these, two received \$18.00 per week, twenty-seven \$12.00, fifty-three \$10.00, forty \$9 00, sixty-four \$8.00, forty-two \$7.00, twenty-three \$6.00. In Watertown the whole number is 79. Six receive \$12.00 per week, sixteen \$10.00, thirty \$8.00, and twenty-seven \$7.00.

Matches.

In the place visited, the work is done mostly by married women, young persons, and children, the highest wages paid women is \$6.00, per week, the lowest \$4.50, young persons wages, highest \$4.00, lowest, \$2.50, children, highest, \$2.00, lowest \$1.00. Hours of labor 10, the average number of weeks the employées work is 40. All work by the piece but are ex-

pected to remain in the workrooms 10 hours per day but few are able to work steadily without a vacation, *owing to the deleterious effects* upon the throat and lungs, from inhaling sulphurous smoke, arising from the materials used.

Oil Cloth.

There are but few women employed in the manufacture of oil cloth ; the work is heavy, sewing of the canvass for painting, requiring good health and strength on the part of those who work at it, and very rarely is a person found with strength sufficiently enduring to work more than a few weeks in succession 10 hours per day, six days per week. Owing to this fact, the hours of labor have been reduced to 8 per day, in order to try the experiment of more leisure upon health.

Average wages per day \$1.25 and \$1.17. Employment, all piece work.

Paper Mills.

Two mills were visited. Wages average about \$1.00 per day in both. Hours of labor 66 per week. Divisions of labor as follows—Sorters, Rulers, Finishers, Rag-Cutters, Calenderwomen. In the first of these mills, situated in Roxbury, House-paper was manufactured, and the season of work last year was 5 months. Time allowed for dinner 45 minutes. This mill is in every respect neat and well ordered. The workers, were many of them foreign, but all appeared cleanly, intelligent and respectable.

The second mill visited, at Mattapan, had been stopped for weeks, and commenced operations on the day of our visit. The mill is low in ceiling. Employs 15 sorters, 11 cutters. All work by the week ; mostly married women keeping house. 3 are Italian, 7 Irish, 14 Americans, all bearing a tidy look, and testifying to good general health.

For further wages see Class IV. Division 8.

Rattan.

In the establishments visited the number of women, young persons and children, and their wages, were as follows:—Women, 140 at \$7.00, 139 at \$6.50, 229 at \$5.00 per week. Young Persons 85 at \$5.50, 42 at \$5.00. Children 20 at \$3.00, 69 at \$4.00 per week, all piece work. Hours of labor per day

10, unless obliged to remain to do overwork. Most of these workers are living in families paying weekly board from \$3.00 to \$4.50. Busy season of about 40 weeks.

*Silk.**

The Factory visited was a large brick building, four stories high, and employing 100 women and children ; nearly all work by the week. The greater portion of them are foreign. Very many of them are married having families. The weekly wages vary from \$4.50 to \$8.00. Board per week \$3.00 to \$3.50. There is no Corporation boarding-house, but many of the operatives live in houses owned by a member of the Corporation who said that he furnished board at a lower rate than other landlords. Hours of labor per week 66. Pay-day 5th of the month.

Suspenders.

The Suspender Factory visited is a two-storied wooden building ; rooms well lighted and heated, low in the walls, ventilation from lower sash of the windows only ; at the time of our visit the thermometer indicated 80 degrees. There are employed in this establishment about 50 women and children, boys and girls, whose ages range from nine to twelve years. Hours of labor per day $10\frac{1}{2}$. Time allowed for dinner $\frac{3}{4}$ hour. Number weeks employed during the year, 46. Children's wages from \$2.00 to \$3.00 per week. They are employed about six months per year, the parents of these children being native residents of the town, and allowing their children to work only during vacations. This is the rule, with but few exceptions. Suspender-making is subdivided into Cutters, Finishers, Packers, &c. &c.

Twine and Cordage.

In the Twine factory visited, there are employed 40 women and children, average weekly wages, of women from \$4.50 to \$7.00 ; children's from \$3.00 to \$4.00 per week. Hours of labor per week 66. Price of board per week for adults \$3.00 ; all board in private families, with the exceptions of those who live in their own homes.

The Cordage Manufactory visited by us, employs but 4

* For wages, etc., see Class IV. and visits of Bureau.

women ; the building is old and said to be very cold in winter. The work is quite steady, with no detention except from want of stock ; \$3.00 per week were the lowest wages paid and \$5.00 the highest. All work by the week, 11 hours per day. These employées are married and keeping house.

Tassels etc.

The Trimming Factory in Hingham is a Building five stories high, enclosed within a fine yard. But one entrance to the building, and no other means of escape in case of fire. The rooms are light and airy with good accommodations, employ about 126 women and young persons ; ages vary from 13 to 25 years ; many of them are boarding in private families, paying from \$3.00 to \$4.00 per week for board. Highest wages received in this establishment \$7.00 and but few receive that ; lowest wages paid for any week's work during the past year \$1.25, average wages per week \$4 50. Hours of labor 66 per week ; all work by the piece and are expected to work that number of hours. One reason given for low wages paid, is, that many of them are young persons, and board at their own homes. Season of work per year 32 weeks. [In such cases, their parents really pay a part of the wages.]

*Woolen.**

The Cotton and Woolen Mills in Fitchburg, are situated in a valley ; they are low in the ceiling, badly ventilated ; upwards of 500 women and children are employed, whose ages are from 10 to 56 years. The employers declared that they were forced to employ children under 12 years of age, by the entreaties of their parents, not from solicitation of their own, although they feel it to be a kindness on their part to employ them, inasmuch as it keeps them out of " mischief and the State Prison." Three families have children at work in the factory under twelve years of age. The parents say that it is an absolute necessity on their part, the children's earnings being needed to support the *family*, and that it is impossible for them to send their children to school and church, even from wages earned by themselves and their children. One German family of five, work in the mill, but their children attend school four months per year, it being all the education they can afford them. They live

* For wage etc. see Class IV. Division 10.

in one half of a house with five rooms, $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile from the mill, through a piece of woods. All carry their dinner to the mill and work 11 hours per day.

*Woolen Carpets.**

It was with difficulty that we gained permission to visit this mill, (in Roxbury), it being one of the rules of the corporation that "no visitor be allowed in the mills while in operation." Through the kind efforts of the Book-keeper, we were granted one half hour's time, providing we would not converse with operatives who were at work. We found two boys, one twelve, the other thirteen years of age disengaged from work, and with whom conversation was held. *They said they had not attended school since they come to work in that mill two years ago.* The Book-keeper asked one of them, "Why have you not been to school?" The boy replied, "mother says I should lose my place in the mill, and that she can't afford to have me go to school." The other a lad of twelve years, said he didn't want to go to school, his clothes were not good enough, should have to work all the time and have no time for play. The boys *fight* me now because I don't stop and play with them when I am going home from the mill at night." Why are you not willing to play with them? "'Cause some of the big-feeling ones poke fun at my clothes and break up all our plays; I rather go home and play with my chum in the backyard where they can't find me. I don't feel much like play any way, I am too tired and sleepy when I get out of this noise." "Don't you like to help make these handsome carpets with such beautiful colors?" "No I don't care nothing about colors nor carpets, they don't do me any good."

Of this boy, the book-keeper said he is a self-willed, daring, and lazy boy; he wont move one step quicker at his work than he pleases and boasts that he never will while his mother keeps him at work in the mill; he goes about complaining because she keeps him at work. He would not be any better contented at any other business. His mother has told us the only way she can have any peace with him is to knock him down, till he is tired and won't complain; that he is too proud to go to school and wear the clothes she can afford him; if he were not he might go once in a while during the

* See also Class IV. Division 10, and visits of Bureau.

year. *But this schooling matter we leave for the parents to regulate, the children belong to them, and we do not propose to assume their duties."*

The wages in this establishment were from \$2.65 for children, \$3.84 for young persons, \$7.26 to \$7.40 for women. Hours of Labor 63 per week. Busy season about 40 weeks per year.

DIVISION IV.—PROFESSIONAL.

We give the following table of wages and salaries of such professional employments as have come under our notice during our investigations.

In many places the wages of teachers are no larger, and sometimes not so large as those of other workwomen, but the condition of their employment is vastly different from that of the workrooms in the shops and manufactories of our large cities. In most instances, teachers have relatives or friends with whom they can spend their vacations without expense, so that their yearly earnings, though small, represent a much better condition of life than that of the needlewoman, or machine operator, whose wages and earnings may reach a higher figure.

TABLE 15.

OCCUPATION.	Weeks.	WAGES.		SALARIES.	
		Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
Costumers, . . .	24	\$10 00	\$8 00	\$240 00	\$172 00
Designers, . . .	48	19 23	13 47	1,000 00	700 00
Dramatic, . . .	-	15 48	7 80	800 00	500 00
Engraver, . . .	-	12 58	-	-	800 00
Telegraphers, . . .	43	12 00	8 00	516 00	344 00
Organists, . . .	52	19 23	12 50	1,000 00	650 00
Music Teachers, . . .	52	13 47	8 68	700 00	450 00
Teachers, . . .	52	13 47	4 16	700 00	216 00

DIVISION V.—MISCELLANEOUS.

We give in the following Table, the highest, lowest and average wages, number of weeks work, and price of board, in the various employments not susceptible of classification. The number employed is to be understood as the number in the

establishment visited, and the wages, as their wages. The best places, and some of the poorest, have generally been visited, so that the figures may be fairly represented in average.

The obtaining of these figures is very difficult, as in many places the system of book-keeping does not permit of a very satisfactory exhibit, and the employées themselves can hardly tell how much they earn in different weeks.

It must be observed that those engaged in work upon Artificial Limbs, Abdominal Supporters, Awls, Upholstery, Globe-makers and Cabinet Organs, are the exceptions. But comparatively few are employed in each of these departments. Their workrooms are well ventilated, and are supplied with proper accommodations. As a rule their work is easier, season longer, wages better; most of the work however requires more than ordinary skill.

TABLE 16.—*Miscellaneous.*

OCCUPATIONS.	No. of Em- ployed.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	No. of Weeks Work.	Board, per Week.
Abdominal Supporter, .	12	\$10 00	\$8 00	\$9 00	30	\$4 50
Artificial Limbs, . . .	6	12 00	8 00	10 00	45	4 50
Apron Makers, . . .	124	6 00	2 00	4 00	16	4 50
Awnings,	6	10 00	8 00	9 00	20	4 50
Awls,	7	10 00	6 00	8 00	45	4 50
Bags,	71	6 00	4 00	5 00	30	3 50
Bookbinders,	101	9 00	4 50	6 75	40	4 50
Bonnet Frames, . . .	141	6 00	2 50	4 25	16	3 00
Boot Heels,	81	7 00	5 00	6 00	30	3 00
Cabinet Organs, . . .	6	10 00	8 00	9 00	48	4 50
Chamber Furniture, .	5	7 00	5 00	6 00	20	4 50
Chocolate,	18	8 00	6 00	7 00	30	4 50
Envelopes,	121	8 00	2 25	5 12	30	4 50
Feather Pickers, . . .	60	5 75	2 00	3 87	24	—
Fire Works,	26	6 00	2 00	4 00	16	4 50
Fishing Tackle, . . .	24	8 00	3 00	5 50	33	4 50
Globe Makers,	14	10 00	3 00	6 50	40	4 50
Hair Weavers,	86	12 00	3 50	7 75	20	4 50
Hair Pickers,	116	5 25	2 00	3 62	24	—
Heel Pasters,	30	10 00	3 00	6 50	18	4 50
Key Workers,	12	12 00	8 00	10 00	48	4 50
Kid Glove Cleansing, .	36	8 00	6 00	7 00	48	4 50
Mattress Makers, . .	120	9 00	4 50	6 75	24	4 50
Nubia "	108	7 00	3 00	5 00	16	4 50
Net "	43	7 50	2 50	5 00	16	4 50
Paper Bags,	126	6 00	2 00	4 00	24	4 50

TABLE No. 16—*Concluded.*

OCCUPATIONS.	No. of Em- ployed.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	No. of Weeks Work.	Board, per Week.
Paper Boxes, . . .	314	\$5 50	\$1 50	\$3 50	24	\$4 50
Paper Hats, . . .	57	9 00	3 00	6 00	16	4 50
Paper Shades, . . .	53	7 00	2 50	4 75	16	4 50
Picture Frames, . . .	31	9 00	3 00	6 00	16	4 50
Pipe Makers, . . .	11	8 00	5 00	6 50	16	4 50
Printers' Ink, . . .	7	10 50	4 50	7 50	16	4 50
Preserves and Pickles, . . .	50	9 00	4 00	6 50	16	4 50
Stampers of Embroidery, . . .	19	10 00	3 00	6 50	24	4 50
Shoe Stiffenings, . . .	95	8 25	1 50	4 87	24	4 50
Stove Polish, . . .	10	6 00	2 00	4 00	20	4 50
Spice and Coffee, . . .	20	8 00	6 00	7 00	40	4 50
Spool Winders, . . .	13	5 00	2 00	3 50	38	4 50
Tapestry Workers, . . .	27	10 00	8 00	9 00	24	4 50
Tags and Labels, . . .	45	8 00	6 00	7 00	24	4 50
Tin Box, . . .	8	7 00	5 00	6 00	16	4 50
Torpedoes, . . .	2	7 00	5 00	6 00	24	4 50
Upholstery, . . .	38	12 00	8 00	10 00	24	4 50
Window Shades, . . .	50	10 00	6 00	8 00	24	4 50
Umbrellas, etc., . . .	78	12 00	2 25	7 12	20	4 50

Bonnet-Frame Makers.

The wages of Bonnet-Frame makers are lower, and the season shorter than in any other manufacture whatever, and the business requires more skilful and experienced hands.

The only way that makes it possible for the employer to obtain help at all in this business, is, that it is quickly learned ; but learned and pursued any length of time, wholly unfits the employée for any other work with the needle, from the fact that the extreme length of stitches required in making a salable bonnet-frame, disqualifies for other work, and when this work fails the workwomen seek employment as saleswomen or at tending in saloons, etc.

Shoe Business.

The Factory system has found the fullest development in Lynn, attended with its numerous drawbacks and compensations.

Work in all departments is largely done by machinery, each class of workers devoting itself to a specialty.

The work is confined to two seasons in the year, of about 17 weeks each. As the season of work begins, a woman gets from

2 to 4 days' work per week, until, with a gradual increase, the rush comes, this in its turn passing off and work beginning to slacken and stop. Many women work at different branches of the business, but very few of the married women are found in the shops, they preferring to take work home. The wages given represent the busy season.

TABLE 17.—*Boots and Shoes.*

TOWN OR CITY.	NUMBER OF WOMEN EARNING PER WEEK—				
	\$8 00.	\$9 00.	\$10.00 to \$12 00.	\$12.00 to \$15 00.	\$15.00 to \$18 00.
Braintree,	10	21	28	4	—
Haverhill,	169	124	167	47	49
Lynn,	405	189	229	135	68
Milford,	5	7	18	14	—
Stoneham,	74	67	72	47	18
Totals,	563	408	514	247	135
Total number employed,					1,867
Average wages per week,					\$10 38
“ hours of labor,					—
“ number of weeks in busy season,					34
“ price of board,					\$4 50
“ earnings per year,					352 92

Printing.

This is one of the best paying and most regularly employed of any of the industries in which women are engaged. The work is considered very unhealthy, the employées suffering from the lead dust, and from the badly ventilated rooms of many printing offices. To this, however there are notable exceptions. There is considerable lost time from sickness and other causes, and in large establishments there are dull seasons, as in other trades. The work is done by the piece or as it is termed by the thousand ems or ms. A woman receives less per thousand than a man, even if she is as well qualified for the work. The men in the trade are opposed to this, as it tends to reduce their wages. At one time the Printers' Union would not admit women to membership, but now that clause is taken out of the constitution and at least one woman has been admitted. And this seems to be the only way for

women, as well as men, to obtain even fair play. The places visited were first-class establishments. There is a large number of establishments in Boston and vicinity, where the girls employed do not average more than \$5.00 per week.

TABLE 18.—*Printing.*

OCCUPATION.	BOSTON.		CAMBRIDGE.	
	No. of Employed.	Average Wages.	Employed.	Wages.
Compositors,	55	\$10 00	9	\$10 00
“	13	9 00	12	9 00
“	46	8 00	20	8 00
“	11	7 00	2	7 00
“	29	6 00	—	—
Proof readers,	10	8 00	1	10 00
“ “	4	7 00	2	7 00

Totals and Averages.

Total number employed,	214	Gen'l average wages per week, \$8 16
“ “ compositors,	197	“ “ “ “ 8 00
“ “ proof readers,	17	“ “ “ “ 8 33
Average hours of labor,		60
“ number of weeks past year,		44
“ price of board,		4 45
General average earnings past year,		359 04

Rosettes, etc.

There are 45 rosette-makers who receive \$1.00 per week—204 \$1.50—117 \$2.00—206 \$3.00—149 \$4.50—300 \$5.00—49 \$6.00—making an average of \$3.28. Hours of Labor per week 60. Number of weeks employed 16—Price of board per week \$4.50.

We now proceed to give extracts from remarks accompanying returns to Blank No. 4.

A Merchant Tailor makes the following Statement:—

“I am unable to answer the questions proposed in Blank No. 4 as carefully and as much in detail as they seem to require. I can, however, give general answers, which perhaps will be more to your purpose. I employ seven women on Coats, ten on Pantaloons and two at Bushelling—this is the technical name for making

alterations and repairs. These women all work in one shop, with three men as pressmen. The two bushel-women are paid by the week, \$10.00 each. They work nine hours a day, though their time is not accurately kept, and there is probably a loss of time to me, rather than any over-work. The Coat and Pantaloon-makers are paid by the piece. They are allowed to carry work home, so that they work as many hours as they please. I keep no detailed account except on their separate pass-books, so that I must answer the second of your questions from my memory. My Coat-makers work forty-six weeks out of the fifty-two, seldom or never losing more than a day or two in that time from any cause. Five of them have worked in my shop together for six years. The only changes I have made have been two; one to supply the place of an old hand who retired to private life, the other to add one new hand to the number I had formerly employed. My Coat-makers seldom earn less than \$12.00 a week, and sometimes as high as \$20.00. I averaged the work-book of one of them a few weeks ago, and found that for forty-six weeks last past, being the entire working year, she had earned and received an average of \$16.63 per week. My Coat-makers claim that they work largely over-hours, and I presume they must. As they work by the piece, I cannot control this. However, the fact that they work forty-six consecutive weeks, and that they have grown old in the service, proves that they are either very well able to stand a severe pressure, or that they don't work very hard, after all. These women are expected to perform the best kind of work, requiring years of apprenticeship, and are paid accordingly.

"The labor of Pantaloon-makers is also paid by the piece. It requires only ordinary skill as a sewing-woman, much less care and judgment, and is accordingly less remunerative. It requires a very smart Pantaloon-maker to earn \$14.00 or \$15.00 a week, and my girls are generally satisfied to earn \$10.00 or \$12.00 in busy times. These last about thirty weeks out of the fifty-two, and the remainder of the time they average about half-work.

"Any information I can give, bearing upon the subject you are investigating, which I can furnish consistently, I shall be pleased to submit.

"I have heard a good deal of 'poor sewing women;' but have never seen one, and my experience is that when women will apply themselves, as heartily and faithfully as men are expected to do, to one trade or mechanical operation, they can secure as good pay and as steady work as the other sex."

An Employer of some twenty or thirty Machine-Stitchers of Boots and Shoes, gives their hours of labor as forty-eight per week, average day wages \$1.50, and says :—

“Those living at home have every opportunity to acquire a knowledge of all things pertaining to the domestic affairs of life, but only three or four are willing to profit by it—they rather ‘the old woman’ would tend to those things. Most of them are well educated, they know everybody in town and considerable portion of the people who are in the habit of coming to town, with their pedigree from their grandfathers—their business and all the gossip and scandal that attaches to them;—who are the men who stay at home with their wives and who travel—what ladies earn their clothes and who make special friends pay for them. Whether you believe it or not, *most* women—say three-quarters of them—don’t want any better education, including, of course, current information of the fashions—and yet it would be a hard matter to collect a better set, of the same number of hands, than we have.”

A Chair Manufacturer employs about two hundred women who cane chairs at their homes. These can average about \$1.00 per day if they give their entire time to it.

Beginners are first tried on unskilled work, and if faithful, are given a good and permanent job in from one to two years.

A Custom Tailor says :—

“We estimate the average earnings of our female hands, (all adults), at \$10.00 per week or more, during nine months in the year, and one-half that amount during the three months. We think this estimate may be rather below than above the actual amount. The occupation is as favorable to health as any sedentary employment can be, much depending upon good *room, air* and *light*. Average hours of labor from nine to ten; nearly all work is by the piece; good hands that work by the week receive \$10.00 per week all the year round, and one week’s vacation in summer with wages continued. The most skilful hands earn from 25 to 33 per cent. more than the above amount.”

Manufacturer of Fine Shirts says :—

“From the nature of our business, it is not easy to fill your blanks. We have about ten women in our workroom, cutting and

preparing shirts to be made. They earn from six to ten dollars a week, working eight or nine hours a day. They remain with us, on an average, five years, more frequently leaving to be married than from any other cause. Average age twenty-five years. All single. They generally take summer vacations of from two weeks to two months. Are seldom sick.

"Women who make shirts are paid by the piece. A good and quick needle-woman can earn six dollars a week. We have an average of perhaps fifty at work in Boston and the surrounding Towns. Many are girls living at home, who in this way earn their clothing; others are married women with small families. *It is getting more difficult every year to find girls who can sew nicely.* Machine-work is taking the place of hand-work, and is not always as good. Our work is almost entirely hand-work."

Cigar Manufacturer says :—

"They (the workwomen) can have promotion when they deserve it. Chances to go into business *poor*, as about all their ambition is, to earn enough to dress well, pay their board, and try to get married."

Testimony of a factory Operative in the Carpet Mill at Lowell :—

"Formerly worked in ——— Clothing Establishment. Averaged 14 hours per day at shop and at home, to make about \$12.00 or \$13.00 per week, at Custom Coat making. It cost me \$5.00 per week for board, the season lasting six months. The other six earned about \$5.00 per week; was obliged to lose a great deal of time from sickness. If I had been strong enough to stand the work, I should not have left. Left there eighteen months ago.

"Have worked in the Carpet Mill twelve months. Work eleven hours per day and earn about \$7.50 per week. We sometimes lose a day's work from repairs to machinery. If the loom breaks down, can go on as spare hand at \$1.12 per day, until the loom is mended. Have lost considerable time during the past year from throat and tonsil difficulty. Have only worked two whole months in the year. Sometimes lose ten days in a month. Pay \$2.25 per week for board. The board is not so good as I had in Boston, but it is very fair. The tea is not so good. We find our own fuel, towels and lamps. The house finds the oil. The Bill of fare is about as follows :—

“For Breakfast, we have raised biscuit, sometimes pie, cold bread, white and graham, tea or coffee—meat very seldom, but never warm, nor warm potatoes. We have to go to work so early in the morning that there isn't time to get a warm breakfast.

“For Dinner, we have, meat, potatoes, vegetables, pie or pudding. Tuesday, we have soup or boiled dinner, Wednesday, fried meat, ham or sausages, Friday, fish, oysters or clams, Sunday, baked beans and brown-bread.

“For Supper, we have bread and butter and cake, sauce and tea—Thursday, melted sugar instead of sauce. Sometimes, pie for supper.

“Have breakfast at 6 o'clock, Dinner at 12, Supper at 6½. Saturday, supper at 5. Sunday, breakfast from 8 to 10. Dinner at 12. Supper at 5.

“We generally relish our Dinner best. This is said to be the best boarding-house in the city; have never boarded in any other. Every girl that rooms in this house, is an American.

“*Weaving.*—In our rooms the girls tend but one loom. Principally, natives in our room. In the mill, Irish and Scotch predominate, less than one-fourth being Americans. More than one-half married women. A great many of them have children. Some of them take their children to work with them. Average age of women is 28 years, some as old as 50, others as young as 20, and some younger. No children except warp boys about 14 years old, two of them say they are 16. It does not seem as though they were twelve they are so small. Accidents occur very often. It seems to be of no account to have a finger taken off. One girl had 2 fingers off during the past year. A girl has been hurt on each successive Saturday for three weeks. I know 5 girls so hurt. A man was nearly killed by falling down from the harness frame on to the loom frame.

“When girls are hurt the corporation does not continue their wages, though I have known of one girl having her wages continued.

“There are 263 women employed in our room. Some of the girls say they can weave one yard more in the forenoon than in the afternoon. There is a good deal of dust, but it settles down. Some cannot work on account of the *high colors and poison dye*. The girls complain of lung diseases, sore throat, and general debility. They all have a haggard appearance, they look better than the girls in the Cotton mills. In our rooms there are windows at the side and overhead. Those overhead are painted to keep out the sunlight. We cannot open the windows on a damp day,

it affects the warp, so that we could not weave. Gas is lighted at 4.40 P. M. at this time (Jan.)”

“The air is bad Monday mornings and after lighting up time. Have a good deal of headache in the afternoon. Have to talk with motion of the lips. Cannot hear however loud we talk. The more we keep our mouths shut the better.

“A great many children are employed in the mills in the spinning room, not in our mill, but on the corporation. *Some as young as 7 or 8 years.* They have talked about enforcing a rule to have the children go to school, but I don’t think they have done it. The little things look *carc-worn and old*, and *are very small*.

“I have heard them tell of children of 7 and 8 years of age at work in the mill. In our room four or five had the small-pox. We were all vaccinated by a Doctor whom the Corporation sent in. Many of the Irish girls would not be vaccinated by an American doctor. The Overseer stood over each girl and compelled her to be vaccinated.

“I know that in the Cotton Mills the girls do not fare as well as we do. The girls would like the ten hour system, though some of them would work 24 hours a day if they could.”

Testimony of a factory operative of Amesbury :

“I have been a working-woman in the mill about twenty-five years, or more, and have never seen the time that I could save money enough from my wages to enable me to obtain books, or avail myself of the advantages of lectures, or pleasure trips. I now am growing old and wearing out. Poverty is and has been, the price of my laborious life. There seem to have been many improvements, reducing the cost of manufactures by the invention of machinery. Yet the wages of the work-women have not advanced thereby. Larger dividends have blessed capital, while labor remains the same. The time has been when the summer would stop every wheel and spindle, causing debts to traders and private boarding-houses, and scattering the operatives far and wide. The introduction of steam when the water fails, closes up the weeks and months of rustivating among the hills and vales of home, and the sea-side and river rambles.”

Testimony. Coat Maker :—

“Have worked fifteen years at this employment. Average time of steady work, eight months. Hours of labor 10, in the shop. Work by the piece averaging \$10.00 per week, for 8 months, *receiving money in weekly payments*, have saved nothing. Board in Boarding

House, occupying Attic-room with five others, three beds, four chairs, stool, two bureaus, looking-glass, and two washstands. No bath-room, or privileges of washing clothes. I am allowed the privilege of the parlor, provided I carry no work into it; as a consequence, I am obliged to work in a cold room. Distance from workshop $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile. Whole number employed in the shop in which I am, is 528. The building five stories high, rooms high studded, well heated and ventilated and furnished with water; other accommodations not suitable. Think the State Board of Health will have never half performed its duty until it inspects this establishment and other workshops of Boston, in which women are employed. My business pays little; it compels me to sew from seven in the morning until six in the evening, in the shop, and then take work home, five evenings per week, when I can obtain it, working from three to four hours per evening. Unless I did, I could not meet my expenses. Am generally healthy, but never feel free from fatigue.

"Have never been engaged but once in a strike, which proved to be a success, until the leaders went from us. Since then we have been cut down several times, and as many times have we failed to get what we asked for, and all owing to the need of an influential worker among us. We are *not strong* enough in and of ourselves, to combat with our employers, without a leader. So I think, I can safely say that I have seen as many as thirty strikes in my experience, and never but one proved a success, the work of one *clear-headed* woman among us, in whom we had the strictest confidence that she would lead us aright.

"It seems to me there is no salvation for us outside of this, and we are earnestly hoping, praying, and will contribute as far as our means will allow, to accomplish this object.

"But it is up hill work and yet we are willing to hope against hope, if we can but have a better state of things in the wage-system. We may not live to see it, and our blood chills as we view the condition of things and look into the faces of woman and girls who are obliged to seek the streets for money to eke out enough to furnish themselves means sufficient to defray their weekly expenses. And cases are not uncommon where girls thus resorting have been sought out by conscientious employers, and have frankly confessed to them that nothing short of want could have tempted to this resort. Amongst the good men who seek these unfortunate creatures are to be found men, themselves employers, found at Church and in the Sabbath School on Sunday.*

* But a case was narrated to one of our assistants by a sewing girl, who applied for work at a large establishment in the city. She was told she could have it for so many weeks

Remarks.

The variety of woman's employments is constantly increasing. But a few years ago, domestic service and the needle were her principal support. No other vocation was open to the poor widow, to the sewing girl, or to the wife who sought to make home more comfortable than her husband's small wages would allow; music and teaching affording better pay to those who had had better opportunities of culture.

So limited were these employments, and so poorly paid, that we cannot wonder that the Cotton and Woolen Mills at their first start, were full of intelligent American women,—girls, such as to-day find employment as book-keepers, telegraph-operators, compositors, teachers, artists, etc.,—but who then found the neatest, and best paid situations as weavers, or dressers. By this trade, daughters of ministers with small salaries, and of merchants with small trade, helped clothe their sisters, or educated their brothers.

Factory labor proved that woman could operate machinery, and that she could perform manual labor out of her own household.

This opened the way to other employments, in which machinery was used, down to the time of the invention of the sewing machine, so that now, women are to be found in nearly all the divisions of industry that come under the factory or congregated labor system. The coarser labor of the building trades, iron works, the mineral products, and various processes of preparing raw materials, such as tanning, etc. being the only exceptions.

The often repeated remark that the working-men have prevented the working-women from entering industrial employments, is not true. Cases of such interference are the rare exceptions. It is in entering the professions that women have had, and are now having the greatest opposition.

We have endeavored to obtain facts relative to the worth of woman as a wage-laborer, by comparison of product under the same circumstances, but have not obtained any reliable data;

of the year, at such a price per week. "But what shall I do," she replied, "for the rest of the year?" "Oh," was the answer, "you can do as many others do, some gentleman will pay your rent in a private room and pay your board in full or in part for the privilege of occasionally visiting you in a friendly way."

BUREAU.

indeed there are but few employments in which men and women perform the same kind of work, for under the subdivision of labor, the harder part of the work is, in this country, still performed by the men. Nor have we here yet reached that point where the highest culture is supplemented by so deep a degradation of woman, as exists in some parts of Europe, where the beast-droppings of the streets are, *by a woman*, shoveled up into a cart dragged by a team consisting of *a woman* harnessed in with a cow, or an ox, or a dog; or where she pulls the canal-boat whereof her husband, with the solace of the pipe, is the dozing driver. But if we continue the present system of cheapening labor, and of sacrificing the quality of its products to their quantity and their cost, if we persevere in a prevailing system of shoddy, we may at last become skilful in shoddyizing humanity itself, and then what? But in reference to the foregoing non-unity of men's and women's work, we find exceptions in type-setting and weaving, though in the former a woman is not actually worth as much as a man, from the fact that a man may be called upon to perform some of its hard muscular work, of which a woman is not capable. Of course an establishment can be so arranged as to remedy this difficulty, and it is neither a good excuse, nor the cause why a woman should receive less per thousand ems than a man.

In *weaving*, a woman receives the same price per yard as a man. The professions show the most marked injustice, in this regard, yet in many of them, women are even better, or worth more, than men.

It is not because she produces less, or is worth less in the market, than a man, that she receives less salary and less wages, for neither men nor women are paid what they earn, or according to what they earn. If they were, those employments that yield the largest profits would pay the largest wages, and those that yield the least, the lowest wages; and thus when any given industry is receiving a large percentage of gain, the employés would share it in the same ratio. But any manufacturer would, at once say, "that is not the way in which business is conducted, for we must make money, when business is good. Now *the laborer is poor*, and though he would be glad to share our gains, he could not afford to share our losses."

This statement, so common and so universally accepted,

nevertheless contains a fallacy to which we can only call attention ; a fallacy the more dangerous because the assertion upon which it rests, viz., *the poverty of labor*, is true, as we have continually shown ; but we leave the discussion of this point for the present.

There is no special, natural law, working to woman's disadvantage, in the matter of her wages. The political or social economy that solves the wage question, will solve her question at the same time. Women are cheap-labor ready at hand, cheap, not because they are unskilled, for the women lace-makers of Belgium are very skilful and very poor, and the unskilled domestic receives more than the most of the skilled needlewomen of our large cities, as will be seen by reference to our tables.

Skill is a very important 'element in society, as well as in industry, but its chief importance to the individual, is in its discipline of the mind by training the mind to habits of observation and inquiry.

Political disfranchisement, though an injustice from which woman suffers, is not the cause though an important element of her cheapness.

She should have the ballot because it is her right, but its possession will not, of itself, give equal earnings. Larger earnings to labor, whether performed by men or women, will come with increased wants and a higher civilization.

There are disabilities accompanying woman's work, as a wage-laborer, that are peculiar to her ; the most of these were given in our last report.

We refer to them again, as no statement of the subject is complete without reference to them.

The first and most important, is the fact that thousands of women, the wives and daughters of farmers and mechanics, are constantly being employed upon the various articles of apparel that are enumerated in our classification, and are therefore cheapening the wage of the constant, regular work-woman.

The second is the fact that thousands of girls in our large cities, daughters of small traders and salaried men, can afford to work for wages that will only clothe them, the father willingly giving them their board. These two classes come into direct competition with the poor girl or woman, who has no other source of income but her labor.

Thirdly the short season of work in almost all her employments, is one of the bad features connected with the subject. When the season is over, those who have homes with parents or relatives, with perhaps sufficient clothing to last until the next season, are comparatively safe ; while those who have no homes, or having them are obliged to work at anything, thrown out of regular employment as they are, in months that find poor working-men, their fathers, in like situations, are often driven to desperate means for a livelihood. For what must be the fate of many whose wages in the busy season are not more than \$6.00 or even \$3.00 per week, and sometimes even less. What can become of them, but to lead a life of feverish anxiety, living, as so many do, in miserable houses in dirty neighborhoods, amid demoralizing surroundings, where neither physical nor moral health is sure. Is it any wonder that vice, holding out promises of better shelter, food and clothing, tempts so many from the path of virtue ? Is it not clear that these low wages diminish the army of honest industry, and increase the army of guilty crime ? Is it not clear that the cry for "cheap labor" brings dear cost elsewhere, leading to results that demand missionary work and Magdalen asylums, and charitable Institutions, and the ceaseless efforts of philanthropic hearts and hands, and all the costly outlay of charity and of crime ?

Let us here interpolate a few figures on this last point, and we find them so well put together in a leader of the Boston Daily Advertiser of January 30, 1872, that we adopt the article :

"The Commonwealth of Massachusetts is at present inflicting every year between 18,000 and 19,000 sentences of imprisonment for offences of every grade, from drunkenness to murder, and for terms of every length, from life down to days. About 11,000 persons are in prison at any given time, on an average. This number of sentences is increasing, as the report of the board of state charities shows, at the rate of over 1,600 a year. What it costs in money actually expended to keep this number of persons from doing days' work, we do not know, though the total expense of the State during 1871, for 'charities and correction,' which includes together the cost of prisons, paupers and vagrants, and that of lunatic and other asylums and hospitals, was \$1,574,000. Whatever this cash cost, however, the real cost must be increased by the

value of the honest work which the average convict and vagrant population might do, but does not. To the 11,000 (average number of convicts), add 12,000, being about half the usual number of vagrants in the State, (admitting that the rest of such vagrants desire and ultimately obtain work), and we have 23,000; if we allow 250 working days to a year, and \$1.50 as the average worth of a day's work,—the minimum estimate for unskilled labor,—we find that convicts and vagrants are wasting for the State, at these minimum rates, *more than eight and a half million dollars'* worth of earnings justly due from them. This important sum total is not greatly diminished by any revenue which the State derives from the enforced labor of prisoners.

“The argument from expense is greatly reënforced by the argument from injustice and from unkindness. It is not only a monstrous bill, *but also a monstrous blame which we incur*, or which we shall incur, if we do not cure such evils, by improving our schools, and our prisons, too, as far as our abilities and means permit.”

The yearly Reports from mission and charitable and founding institutions show increase of applicants for aid, show needed enlargement of accommodation and will continue the same exhibit until men's and women's wages will afford them proper shelter, proper food, proper clothes, and afford time for study, culture and health-bringing recreation for body and mind. Not till then will the demand for increased means to build and enlarge charitable asylums, abate,—and the fearful crime disappear against which God himself has ordained its fearful penalty, a crime generated out of that dreadful trade which poverty has established, as the brief but deadly remedy of its own baneful sorrows. Now the moment that the cause of social evil, as a specialty, comes to be dealt with, men and women shrink morbidly from the responsibility of investigation, and, becoming merged in the general mass, content themselves with what is, in reality, a nursing of a disease, which, in consequence of low wages and excessive toil, supplies more victims than can be provided for by our asylums, our charitable institutions, or by any or all of the alleviating means which Christian sympathy supplies. Nor, till the time comes when associated effort shall secure unity of action to remove the cause of social evil, will woman become an effective instrument—

ality in eliminating the vast evils, as well as the smaller wrongs of our industrial social systems ;—evils that exercise so dominating an influence upon her position therein.

A great obstacle in the way of woman's success as a wage-laborer, is found in the lack of motive consequent upon her expectation of being married.

The girl of 15 or 16, looks to but 3 to 5 years of wage service, and the earnings of those years are only expected to add to the attractions that shall shorten that period.

The subdivision of labor, through its destruction of the need of skill, is rendering her more profitable as an employée ; but the motive to advancement and success will only come to the majority of women, when the hours of labor are reduced to a minimum, and perfected machinery has rendered labor attractive and entertaining. When men and women will have learned to coöperate in industry, new motives to work will have arisen, that will not interfere with marriage or the necessity of working, except in household duties, after marriage, may disappear.

Another disadvantage growing out of the same causes as those already enumerated, is the small chance of promotion or advancement in any calling she may choose. Yet this chance of escape from wage-labor, by becoming an employer, is, in one sense, increasing with women, the principal impediment being the force of custom, that in this, as in other matters, amounts to prejudice. But even were the prejudice removed, the poor working woman would find her poverty of means a sufficient barrier to any advancement beyond that of fore-woman or superintendent ; for in the employments in which the most women are engaged, very large capital is required to make the business successful and profitable.

So she has prejudice, as well as poverty, to contend with, and in all matters of reform, custom has limited her line of duty to alleviative measures,—visits to the poor, the outcast and forsaken ; the organization and control of missions to reclaim the fallen ; fairs for charitable and benevolent institutions ; all worthy objects, but touching only the results, not the causes of evil. Prevention has ever been a matter of consideration with woman more than with man. Money and time

are readily given to such enterprises, but both are withheld from experiments tending to the discovery of causes.

When the most favored of the number understand that the want of bread, bread earned by industry, not given in charity, is a most prolific source of vice and crime, and that an education that does not compel its possessor to increased wants, beyond those that grow out of a love of display, falls short of the imperative requirements of the times ; when this is understood, men and women will seek out the way to prevent, instead of the way to alleviate, existing evils.

CLASS IV.—INDUSTRIAL.

The information obtained for this and the following Class, was derived from General Wage Blank No. 5 ; a blank so arranged as to cover all departments of industry, except Agriculture and Commerce.

The parties to whom this blank was addressed, were informed that they were expected to answer only such questions as pertained to their special business, and that should any desire to give personal testimony, every reasonable opportunity would be given them. No one has requested the privilege.

The questions contained in the Circular are 22 in number, and are as follows :—

CIRCULAR—BLANK NO. 5.

- 1.—Is labor adapted to your business scarce or abundant, at present, August, 1871 ?
- 2.—Has there been any special increase or decrease of wages, during the past twelve months ?
- 3.—If you have worked extra-time, or night work, in your establishment for the past twelve months, give number of nights.
- 4.—Are women and children required to work such extra-time, or such night work ?
- 5.—If during the last five years you have run short time, give length of time so run, the speed, hours per day, product, number of persons employed, and total wages.
- 6.—Give production on full time for six months, rate of speed, total wages, and number of persons employed.
- 7.—Is the contract system of sub-letting practiced in your business ? If yes, state to what extent, and its advantages over the overseer system.
- 8.—If you employ women to a large extent, give such facts regarding their condition as wage-laborers as your experience warrants, or send for a blank specially prepared for that purpose.

- 9.—If you employ children, what is your method of ascertaining their ages, and what is your system of conforming to the law regulating the hours of labor and the schooling of children.
- 10.—If accidents have occurred during the past twelve months, in your establishment, give details, and suggest any practical method by which such accidents may be prevented.
- 11.—If you have had experience as an employer under a longer working-day than your present, give the effects of each system upon wages and earnings, production, profit, etc., condition of employés, and also give your views upon further reduction, etc., or send for blank specially prepared for this purpose.
- 12.—State your experience in connection with strikes for the past twelve months, with full particulars of causes, whether successful or not, with loss in time and money to each party.
- 13.—Have you ever discharged persons for participating in strikes or labor movements of any kind, or interfered with their obtaining employment elsewhere for so participating?
- 14.—Has any system of arbitration been adopted by you?
- 15.—If boarding-houses are attached to your establishment, give your experience in connection with them, and state your system of management.
- 16.—Do you pay your employés in cash, or in orders, or partly in each?
- 17.—How often do you pay off, or settle with your employés, and how much time elapses between the making up of your "time rolls" and such paying off or settlement; and is any interest allowed on amount of pay during its detention?
- 18.—What is the highest amount of property owned by any wage-laborer, not an overseer or foreman in your employ?
- 19.—State what associations, trade-unions, charitable, instructive, or recreative, exist among your employés, and what are your relations to such societies?
- 20.—What indications can you mention of special improvement, or the reverse, in the character and condition of employés, during the last ten or fifteen years, and what the change in their nationality?
- 21.—Whether or not, *to your own knowledge*, the number of workmen who become master-employers, is relatively increasing or decreasing?
- 22.—Within your experience, what has been the percentage of increased cost of machinery, and what the percentage of increased capital, required to carry on your business?

Blank space was also left for general remarks.

An examination of these questions and the following tables, will show, that the manufacturers of Textile Fabrics alone, were expected to answer twenty-one of these questions, and that even a large share of these establishments would be exempted from questions 3, 4, 5, while a very large proportion of other

employments were entirely exempt, not only from 3, 4, 5, but also from 6, 7, 8, 9, so that the questions were not generally burdensome by force of numbers or difficulty of answer. Question 18 was asked at the request of employers, and others, who believed that the working classes were largely property owners, and all of the inquiries were so prepared as to admit of very brief, yet accurate answers.

A very accurately prepared return was received from a Cotton Mill, with twelve of the questions answered, *each with a single word*..

The Tabular Blank accompanying the above, contained 15 questions, as follows :—

TABULAR BLANK, No. 5.

- 1.—Total present employés—Native, Foreign, Men, Women, Young Persons, Children.
- 2.—Occupation.
- 3.—Average wages, by time or piece.
- 4.—Number of months in active operation, (part time reduced to full time), for past 12 months.
- 5.—Average lost time of employés per month, from recreation, sickness, and other causes—holidays not counted.
- 6.—Average time lost to employés by stoppage of their own machinery, or by causes not mentioned above.
- 7.—Hours of labor per week.
- 8.—Hours of labor on Saturday.
- 9.—Time allowed for dinner.
- 10.—Whole number of persons that cannot read nor write.
- 11.—Number of children that have had their legal schooling between July 1870 and July, 1871.
- 12.—Total amount of wages paid for past year, from date.
- 13.—Average number of persons employed for same time.
- 14.—What percentage of present employés were with you a year ago ?
- 15.—How many tenements do you rent to employés, and what are the annual current rates ?

Notes and Explanations.

Notes and Explanations accompanying this blank were as follows: “Young Persons”—those between 15 and 21. “Children”—all under 15. “Total required”—full employing capacity of the establishment. “Occupation”—general names, such as carder, spinner, etc. Caution was given against giving salaries of agents, etc., in the averages of other occupations. The parties addressed were also requested to adopt a specified method of obtaining averages, so as to give uniformity and correctness to the returns.

As will be readily seen these are all answerable with figures, and six without computation.

Twenty-five per cent of the parties addressed received only this Tabular Blank, as it was thought best in many branches of business, employing but few persons, to obtain general information by another method ; and so, as far as possible, a Circular was sent to single representative persons or firms ; care being constantly taken to avoid making the work of filling out returns too irksome.

From some large towns we have received *no full returns*. *Fall River is a marked example of this*. From other towns many of our Circulars were returned in a package, without explanation or remark. Such was the case with many of those sent to Haverhill. We are not prepared to say that this was by agreement, but the promptness of return was certainly very singular and suggestive. What will persons outside of our State argue upon this unity of reticence, and this refusal to impart information upon grave questions affecting the common interest ?

In our last Reports we gave the wages in each subdivision of the business. This year we have averaged the wages on each blank returned. This will give, at a glance, a picture of the wages and earnings of all the persons employed. In the following divisions and subdivisions, we have given the returns to the blanks, with totals and averages, reserving the comments to the end of Part 1.

DIVISION I. — APPAREL.

SUBDIVISION I. *Boots and Shoes.*

Last year much space was given to this business. This year we present only the Tables with such remarks as accompany the returns.

The longest hours reported were 64, the shortest 48 ; both of them in Haverhill. The former employed an average of 32 and the latter 33 persons, the number of months in active operation 11 and 10 ; the highest wages of the two being in the establishment working the shortest number of hours.

The total wages are in many cases estimates made by the employers. The general correctness is proven by the Table of *actual* wages farther on.

TABLE 1.—Boots and Shoes.

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.						HOURS OF LABOR.		PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Total.	Per Week.	Saturday.	One year ago.	Five years ago.
402	Danvers, .	45*	—*	20	25	—	45	60	9	75	25
412	Peabody, .	—	—	10	5	—	15	60	10	75	25
465	Haverhill, .	65*	—*	58	7	17	82	60	10	100	75
521	Methuen, .	33	—	30	3	—	33	60	10	33	17
525	Andover, .	100*	—*	35	65	—	100	60	10	40	—
533	Topsfield, .	75	—	50	25	15	90	60	10	100	75
564	Gloucester, .	7	—	6	1	—	7	60	10	100	100
574	Haverhill, .	25	75	75	20	5	100	60	10	75	25
578	"	—*	—*	32	—	—	32	64	9	—	—
588	"	15	7	21	—	1	22	48	8	50	—
760	Lynn, .	63	4	43	24	—	67	58	8	75	20
863	Ipswich, .	—*	—*	18	7	—	25	60	—	—	—
888	"	70	—	40	30	—	70	60	10	90	—
891	"	80	14	40	28	26	94	60	10	90	—
892	"	24	1	1	24	—	25	54	10	20	—
935	Natick, .	12	26	33	2	3	38	59	9	5	—

1,005	Wakefield,	96	4	72	25	3	100	59	9	100	75
1,087	Ashland,	275	25	250	25	25	300	59½	9½	80	5
1,132	Holliston,	22	28	50	—	—	50	60	10	80	20
1,142	Hopkinton,	40	20	40	10	10	60	60	10	50	10
1,146	Hudson,	—*	—*	78	25	9	112	60	10	90	25
1,222	Malden,	120	168	133	138	17	288	59	9	90	75
1,309	Woburn,	15	12	15	7	5	27	59	9	60	—
1,313	"	30	7	23	12	2	37	59	9	90	—
1,507	Braintree,	70*	40*	105	5	13	123	60	9	60	—
1,538	Franklin,	19	—	19	—	—	19	54	10	75	—
1,551	West Medway,	31	14	32	—	13	45	60	10	80	—
1,558	"	70	55	100	—	25	125	60	—	60	—
1,597	East Randolph,	12	—	12	—	—	12	—	—	100	50

* Nationality unknown.

TABLE 1.—*Boots and Shoes*—Continued.

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.					HOURS OF LABOR.		PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.		
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Total.	Per Week.	Saturday.	One year ago.	Five years ago.
1,604	Randolph,	53	22	64	5	6	75	60	10	90	50
1,605	Sharon,	38	7	41	4	-	45	55	-	90	50
1,616	Stoughton,	31	7	31	-	7	38	-	-	75	25
1,662	East Bridgewater,	26	-	24	2	-	26	-	-	75	50
1,686	Hingham,	16	2	17	1	-	18	60	10	100	75
1,694	West Scituate,	38	5	31	7	5	43	54	-	80	-
1,701	Middleborough,	-*	-*	56	14	-	70	60	9	99	80
1,719	North Bridgewater,	30	10	35	5	-	40	60	10	60	40
1,725	“	19*	2*	21	1	-	22	52½	9	99	99
1,731	Campello,	18*	9*	18	3	6	27	54	9	90	60
1,737	“	7	11	17	2	1	20	-	-	50	20
1,752	Plymouth,	13*	-*	14	-	-	14	-	-	-	-
1,768	Athol,	30	5	20	15	-	35	60	10	80	30
1,783	Barre,	90	10	95	3	2	100	60	10	60	20
1,864	Grafton,	8	12	20	-	-	20	60	10	90	50
1,875	“	22	10	32	-	-	32	60	10	80	50

1,922	Milford,	50	190	228	12	—	240	59	9	90	50
1,928	“	17	28	36	2	7	45	60	10	75	50
1,934	“	62	47	76	14	19	109	59	9	50	—
1,936	“	30	50	47	3	30	80	59	9	90	60
1,966	North Bridgewater,	50	26	61	9	6	76	60	10	90	—
1,989	Spencer,	25	75	97	3	—	100	60	10	75	50
2,015	Webster,	100	93	127	48	18	193	60	10	85	55
2,020	Westborough,	37	38	70	4	1	75	60	10	75	25
2,022	“	55*	75*	118	7	30	155	59½	9½	50	10
2,025	Oakdale,	23	3	15	4	7	26	59	9	67	—
2,076	Worcester,	47	10	50	4	3	57	60	10	75	—
2,079	“	100	106	148	54	4	206	60	10	75	25

* Nationality unknown.

TABLE 1.—Boots and Shoes—Continued.

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.			AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per month.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
				Men.	Women.	Young Persons.						
402	Danvers,	.	.	\$2 75	\$1 00	-	11	2	\$10,600 00	45	\$222 22	\$0 88
412	Peabody,	.	.	2 50	1 25	-	10	1	9,000 00	15	600 00	2 40
465	Haverhill,	.	.	2 83	2 50	\$1 50	12	4	20,000 00	60	333 33	1 26
521	Methuen,	.	.	2 25	2 00	-	12	3	20,000 00	25	800 00	2 89
525	Andover,	.	.	1 50	1 50	-	-	1	8,000 00*	75	-	-
533	Topsfield,	.	.	2 62	1 50	1 25	11	3	42,630 00	75	568 40	2 25
564	Gloucester,	.	.	2 00	1 00	-	10	2	3,380 00	8	422 50	1 76
574	Haverhill,	.	.	2 00	1 00	75	12	-	25,000 00	100	250 00	80
578	"	.	.	2 50	-	-	11	-	9,706 74	32	303 33	1 06
588	"	.	.	2 78	-	1 50	10	3	30,016 00	33	909 57	4 04
760	Lynn,	.	.	3 33	1 63	-	8	1	43,387 43	60	723 12	3 63
863	Ipswich,	.	.	2 50	1 75	-	-	-	15,700 00	25	628 00	-
888	"	.	.	2 00	1 00	75	-	-	20,000 00	75	266 66	-
891	"	.	.	3 50	1 30	1 50	11	3	45,000 00	90	500 00	1 97
892	"	.	.	3 50	1 00	-	9	2	7,500 00	25	300 00	1 39
935	Natick,	.	.	3 00	1 25	2 00	11	3	13,000 00	26	500 00	1 97

1,005	Wakefield,	\$2 64	\$2 00	\$0 83	11½	4	\$50,000 00	100	\$500 00	\$1 97
1,087	Ashland,	3 00	50	75	11½	3	125,000 00	250	500 00	1 87
1,132	Holliston,	2 51	—	—	12	4	34,523 90	50	690 47	2 61
1,142	Hopkinton,	2 50	1 00	75	11	3	30,000 00	100	300 00	1 14
1,146	Hudson,	2 60	2 00	1 12	11	5	58,000 00	86	674 41	2 91
1,222	Malden,	2 66	1 25	83	7½	—	130,000 00	400	325 00	1 72
1,309	Woburn,	2 37	1 33	1 33	10	2	9,795 81	27	362 80	1 51
1,313	"	2 50	1 50	1 00	11	—	9,600 00	37	259 45	91
1,507	Braintree,	2 40	1 25	1 50	10	5	59,109 81	125	472 87	2 25
1,538	Franklin,	3 00	—	—	11	3	12,000 00	15	800 00	3 16
1,551	West Medway,	2 71	—	1 25	11	—	18,500 00	40	462 50	1 61
1,558	"	2 50	—	2 00	—	—	30,000 00	100	300 00	—
1,597	East Randolph,	2 00	—	—	12	—	5,031 50	12	419 29	1 34

* Office No. 525 reports, "Cannot tell number of months in operation, but do not work over half the time; the women earning \$1.50 work on machines. Work is also given out to women in families who in addition to their housework earn 20 cents a day."

TABLE 1.—*Boots and Shoes—Concluded.*

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m'th.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.						
1,604	Randolph,	\$2 43	\$0 75	\$1 25	12	1	\$53,500 00	75	\$713 33	\$2 37
1,605	Sharon,	3 25	1 18	-	10½	-	24,000 00	45	533 33	1 95
1,616	Stoughton,	3 25	-	2 08	10	2½	26,000 00	35	742 85	3 16
1,662	East Bridgewater,	2 75	1 50	-	9	2	15,000 00	25	600 00	2 89
1,686	Hingham,	2 80	1 00	-	11	2	12,000 00	18	-	-
1,694	West Scituate,	2 58	1 40	1 00	10½	2	18,000 00	35	514 28	2 12
1,701	Middleborough,	2 50	1 00	1 25	11½	1	33,000 00	70	471 42	1 64
1,719	North Bridgewater,	2 75	1 25	-	9	1	10,000 00	30	333 33	1 48
1,725	"	3 50	1 50	-	11½	-	18,255 00	22	829 77	2 77
1,731	Campello,	2 77	1 38	1 50	10	3	18,000 00	27	666 66	2 89
1,737	"	2 75	1 66	1 25	10	-	12,434 50	18	690 77	2 65
1,752	Plymouth,	2 43	-	-	11	-	10,929 00	14	780 64	2 73
1,768	Athol,	2 20	1 10	-	11½	2	15,000 00	35	428 57	1 52
1,783	Barre,	2 00	1 25	1 00	12	8	10,500 00*	100	105 00	48
1,864	Grafton,	1 95	-	-	10	-	10,000 00	20	500 00	1 92
1,875	"	2 05	-	-	9	4	11,520 00	32	360 00	1 81

1,922	Milford,	\$2 50	\$1 16	—	12	2½	\$150,000 00	240	\$625 00	\$2 21
1,928	"	2 70	1 25	\$1 00	12	—	18,000 00	45	400 00	1 28
1,934	"	2 73	1 32	1 38	12	—	90,272 83	154	586 18	1 87
1,936	"	2 65	1 50	1 50	11	3	40,000 00	80	500 00	1 97
1,966	North Bridgewater,	2 56	1 25	1 37	12	1	50,000 00	75	666 66	2 22
1,989	Spencer,	2 50	2 00	—	11	4	58,000 00	85	670 58	2 77
2,015	Webster,	3 04	1 73	1 40	12	1	83,275 65	132	630 87	2 10
2,020	Westborough,	2 62	2 00	1 25	10	2	43,086 00	50	861 72	3 74
2,022	"	2 82	1 50	2 00	12	—	43,000 00	100	430 00	1 37
2,025	Oakdale,	2 69	1 82	1 30	9½	2½	12,600 00	26	484 61	2 43
2,076	Worcester,	2 18	1 12	1 40	12	2	38,425 60	70	548 93	1 90
2,079	"	2 75	1 50	1 10	12	2	114,090 00	200	570 45	1 98

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native, . . . 2,449;
 " " Foreign, . . . 1,353;
 Nationality unknown, . . . 328;
 Total, . . . 4,130.

Average hours of labor per week, 59.—Average hours on Saturday, 9½.—No. of days in active operation in the year, 281.
 " lost time per year, from sickness etc. to each person, 32 days.

Total wages \$1,936,162.27; Ave. No. employed 3,969; Ave. earnings per year to each person, \$487.82; Ave. day wages to same, \$1.96.

NOTES.—Sixteen establishments report 301 adults and 23 minors who cannot read nor write. Three establishments return 295 nights' work of an average of 2½ hours per night. Average time allowed for dinner is one hour.

* In this Blank (No. 1,783) there is evidently an error. Multiplying the wages by the number employed for 216 days—days actually worked—would give total wages paid \$42,281.00

Office Nos. 521-588'-760-1132-1146-1538-1662-1731-1752-1989-2020, are evidently overstated, as the average wages to each person employed, exceed the average day wages of the men, and more than compensate for the few returns that are understated.*

In addition to the returns tabulated we have received imperfect returns giving the following—Natives, 415—Foreign, 311—Nationality unknown 30.—Men 449—Women 187—Young Persons 70—Hours of Labor—time for dinner, etc.—the same as in Table. Average wages of Men \$2.43 Women average the same as in Table. Young Persons 94 cents.

Extracts from Blank No. 5.

[OFFICE NO. 1,686.]

Boot Manufacturer :—

“Don't think the Order of Crispins has a healthy influence; it brings together those who would not associate under any other circumstances. The majority of bottomers are not persons of stability; at the same time there are a great many noble exceptions. The *dare-devil* class, being in the majority, has, in Crispinism, compelled the more thoughtful to take steps that were obnoxious to them, (I mean in Strikes), and we think from what we see and hear, it is tending to break up the Association.”

[OFFICE BLANK 1,768.]

Shoe Manufacturer remarks :—

“My experience as an employer of intelligent laborers during the past twenty-one years, on a somewhat extensive scale, (having employed some thousands), I think justifies my opinion, that at no other time has the laborer, either male or female, had so good an opportunity as the present, for saving money, or improving his mind. In my opinion the subject which should now be most urged upon the laboring classes *is the importance of having homes of their own*. I have noticed that a very large proportion of heads of families who have attempted to build, or buy a home, have succeeded, generally beyond their expectations, in paying for the same. Moreover, the owners of homes and their families are, as a rule, better help, and give less trouble than those who have no homes. They are more temperate, more industrious, more economical and better citizens, than those who having no homes, are kept constantly mov-

* See page 14.

ing from one place to another, generally without bettering themselves, and nearly always, more or less subjecting their last employer to inconvenience or loss."

[OFFICE No. 191.]

Boot and Shoe Manufacturer says:—

"We employ no one that belongs to trades-unions, nor will we have anything to do with such societies."

[OFFICE No. 525.]

A Shoe Manufacturer remarks:—

"I manufacture hand-made goods, mostly turned shoes such as women's buskins, and slippers and children's ankle-ties. I intend to get up a good serviceable shoe, but a low-priced one. Commenced about three years ago, doing a very small business at first; have more than doubled it the last six months. I do the same right along, through dull and good times, and when the shoes don't sell, keep them till the time comes round. I sometimes have a hundred set, out binding. It usually takes a woman about three weeks to bind a set with leather binding, and shoe-makers that do my kind of shoes are usually small farmers who work out part of the time. I get more made in the winter than in the summer. It is hard to tell how much shoe-makers or binders earn a day, as they work at home, and as and when they please."

[OFFICE No. 1,573.]

Boot Manufacturer:—

"There have been fewer new hands, and the result is a better class of workmen, on an average. Think their social and financial condition has improved. At present employ less Irish and more German. Think the latter better every way."

[OFFICE No. 1,605.]

Boot Manufacturer says:—

"Fourteen of our hands own homesteads."

[OFFICE No. 1,783.]

Boot and Shoe Manufacturer:—

"We have had no strikes. Our men are mostly intelligent

Americans who are disgusted with the way the foreign element acts, in Crispin lodges and in strikes. Most of our men have been Crispins, but it will be a long day before they join again."

[OFFICE No. 2,015.]

"The experience of our men is not different from that of most men in the same line of goods. Wages for several years in our business have been high. No diminution in rates has taken place since the extreme rates of the war. In fact, we pay higher rates for some classes of labor now, than we did seven years ago. While the necessities of life have materially declined, and wages have kept up, some men have saved money and invested it, others have only found more opportunity of spending. Accordingly while we say that in the aggregate, they have saved more money, we are inclined to think that it is the *few* who have saved and not the *many*."

"The increased capital required to do business is very marked. This arises in part from the additional cost of machinery, partly from the longer 'time' given purchasers of goods, and also from the fact that the manufacturer is obliged to keep so much larger a stock of goods manufactured than formerly. The sales in our line cover only some four or five months, that is, the demand outside of those months is light. Then in order to employ our help anything like full time, we must accumulate goods largely, against the time of sale, and this requires capital. To do the same amount of business which we were doing five or eight years ago, requires double the capital then employed."

SUBDIVISION II. *Miscellaneous Apparel.*

Subdivisions omitted here will be found, with other particulars specially relating to the employment of women, in these departments, under Class III., Woman's Work. See also account of visit to a large establishment in Boston. It will be seen that a large percentage of the employés are foreigners, and that women largely predominate. The young persons include both sexes, but it is known that girls predominate.

The hours of labor in the clothing establishments, vary from 51 to 72 per week; the time for dinner is from 60 to 90 minutes. The highest wages of men are found in the establishments working 54 hours per week, and the lowest in the one working 60. Women receive \$1.00 per day in the former, and 80 cts. in the latter. In the pay of young persons the order is

reversed. Both establishments are in operation 12 months, and there is twice as much lost time under the long time system.

In the Hosiery business the hours are from 57 to 65; the higher wages for men in the latter, and the smaller in the one working $63\frac{1}{2}$ hours. Women and Young persons receive the most in an establishment working 60 hours, and the least in the establishments working respectively $63\frac{1}{2}$ and 65 hours. The highest lost time given is in the Straw business.

TABLE 2.—*Miscellaneous Apparel.*

No. of Blank.	O C C U P A T I O N.	N U M B E R O F P E R S O N S E M P L O Y E D.					H O U R S O F L A B O R.		Time for dinner, minutes.	P E R C E N T A G E O F E M P L O Y E S A T W O R K.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Total.	Per Week.	Saturday.	One year ago.	Five years ago.
2,406	Clothing,	20	5	15	3	7	25	54	8	80	30
183	"	10	3	6	6	1	13	72	12	80	40
566	"	20	1	1	15	5	21	65	8	90	45
862	"	15	1	3	13	-	16	51	-	-	-
1,334	"	8	6	6	8	-	14	-	-	-	-
479	Hats,.	37	28	30	26	-	65	60	9	100	-
860	Hosiery,	96	82	38	63	72	178	60	10	59	-
1,168	"	80	26	30	64	12	106	63½	8½	63	-
1,569	"	2	51	35	7	11	53	59	9	75	25
1,572	"	25	70	77	8	10	95	65	10	-	-
243	Laundries,.	4	30	4	30	-	34	65	10½	20	-
1,536	Straw Goods,	107	68	2	73	100	175	60	10	-	-

TABLE 2.—Miscellaneous Apparel—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m'th.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.						
2,406	Clothing,	\$3 33	\$1 00	\$0 62	12	1	\$20,000 00	25	\$800 00	\$2 66
183	"	3 00	80	1 00	12	2	7,800 00	12	650 00	2 25
566	"	2 83	81	81	9	2	4,500 00	18	250 00	1 15
862	"	3 00	82	-	12	1½	5,412 00	16	338 25	1 15
1,334	"	3 00	1 60	-	-	-	8,000 00	14	571 42	-
479	Hats,	2 26	1 25	-	11	-	22,000 00	65	338 46	1 18
860	Hosiery,	2 01	1 39	1 08	12	2¼	90,000 00	206	436 89	1 53
1,168	"	1 77	1 25	50	11½	1	42,535 24	106	401 27	1 39
1,569	"	2 00	1 12	87	6	1	9,576 00	53	180 67	1 20
1,572	"	2 50	88	75	10	1	25,000 00	95	263 15	1 19
243	Laundries,	2 00	1 25	-	12	1¼	7,659 56	20	382 97	1 28
1,536	Straw Goods,	2 35	85	85	8	5	45,000 00	225	200 00	1 19

NOTE.—Number who cannot read nor write, foreign adults, 35; Minors, 9.

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native,	.	.	.	424;	Number of Men,	Average wages of Men per day,	.	.	.	\$2 50
" Foreign,	.	.	.	371;	" Women,	" Women per day,	.	.	.	1 08
Total,	.	.	.	795;	" Y. persons,	" Y. Persons, per day,	.	.	.	81
Average hours of labor per week,	61	.	.	795;	" Children,	" Children,	.	.	.	61
Number of days in the year in active operation,	273	.	.	.	Average hours on Saturday,	9½
Total wages, \$287,482.80	Av'ge number employed,	855	.	.	.	Av'ge earnings per year to each person,	\$336.23	.	.	Av'ge day wages to same, \$1.32.

In addition to the returns tabulated, we have received other imperfect returns giving the following—Number employed in one clothing establishment 12. Native 5—Foreign 7. Men 5—Women 2. Young persons 5. Hours of labor 60 per week.

Another gives Total number of employés—50. Hours of labor 54. The average day wages of the men in the former agreeing with Table; those of women and young persons being \$1.25 each.

Two establishments report 9 children at work, and having legal schooling. One Straw Goods establishment reports working 40 nights during the past year.

Three establishments give the number of tenements owned as 15.

Extracts from Blank No. 5.

[OFFICE No. 566.]

A Tailor remarks:—

“It is hard for me to get at the hours of labor, as I am not a *driver* in business, and the hands work on piece-work. Unless the work is urgent, I allow them their own time. I do not believe in too hard work for too many hours. I try to make my workroom more like a family room, than a task-shop. I believe it to be better for the health, and I get better work. I encourage cheerfulness, singing, &c., in work hours, never allowing myself to speak a sharp word, and discouraging it among the operatives. My hands look upon me as one of themselves, without being too familiar. That I believe to be the true relation, and I find that when some of them have gone to other places, as they sometimes will, that they have always come back.

“Perhaps this may not be of interest to a purely business man, whose whole aim is to get all he can from his trade, but I do not believe that I am above my help merely because they work for me. I wish them to respect themselves, and myself at the same time, and my experience for twenty years has produced no desire to change, especially as my business has proved pleasant and profitable.

“As a general thing my help does not work on Monday, taking that day to do their own work at home, but take three hours in the other evenings of the week to make up time; but this is their own choice. I do not employ any but American help, because experience has taught me, that differences will sometimes arise on account of nationality, making it unpleasant to all in the shop;

and so what few I used to employ have been gradually weeded out. I do this for a life of enjoyment. If I went entirely for making *money*, probably I should do differently. Sometimes one will get a little restless and will leave, but I have never known an instance as yet, that they have not asked to be taken back. I never had a girl refuse to do any work I asked but once, and that was this last fall. I merely told her that I did not want any-one in the shop who was not willing to do right. She left and has been in a number of shops since, but this very week, has come to me to be taken back, and I always take them back when I can. My true idea of labor is this: Equality between employer and help without familiarity, but the employer to be head supreme under the *Golden Rule*."

[The above statement is worthy of thought, and the method, of imitation.]

[OFFICE No. 2,194.]

A Manufacturer of Clothing says:—

"The average time in my shop is about nine hours. I am here all the time and am tired enough, but I think ten hours is the proper length of day for work. I think the eleven hour system is a disgrace to the State, and the sooner we wipe it out the better. I know from my experience in female labor, *that eleven hours is too long*, and it becomes our duty to help them, for you see their utter helplessness at the elections. *Wipe out the eleven hour system at once!*"

DIVISION II.—CHEMICALS.

SUBDIVISIONS 3—4—6—8—9—13—14.

This table represents a wide diversity of employments. The hours of labor vary from 48 in the Nitro Glycerine, to 84 in the Gas Works, the time for dinner being one hour. The day wages in the last are not given, but from the total wages paid by the two Companies reporting, the difference in annual earnings is in favor, as heretofore, of the short time establishments.

In the following Table, the wages of women are not given.

TABLE 3.—Chemicals, etc.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.				Hours of Labor, per week.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYES AT WORK.		AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active oper- ation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per month.
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.		One year ago.	Five years ago.	Men.	Young Persons.		
798	Candles and Soap,	9	4	13	13	66	37	-	\$2 00	-	-	-
2,531	Chemicals,	-	10	6 ¹	20	60	80	50	1 50	-	12	-
1,220	Dyes,	34	7 ³	41 ²	65	54	-	-	-	-	12	-
9	Gas,	2	10	12	12	70	60	40	-	-	-	-
144	"	-	-	18	18	84	87	-	-	-	-	-
658	Leads and Paints,	12	27	39	39	59	50	-	1 85	-	12	-
24	Nitro Glycerine,	9	4	13	13	48	50	-	2 67	-	10	-
1,376	Paints and Chemicals,	4	16 ⁴	20	22	60	50	25	1 75	1 00	10	-
189	Oil,	11	1	12	12	-	90	60	1 87	-	12	1
2,354	"	21	81	94	102	60	75	50	-	-	12	$\frac{1}{2}$

¹ 4 Women employed.

² 16 women employed.

³ Nationality unknown, 24.

⁴ Nationality unknown, 2.

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native,	102	Number of Men,	268	Average wages of Men per day,	\$1 94
" Foreign,	160	" Young Persons,	18	" Young Persons per day,	1 00
Nationality Unknown,	44	" Women,	20		

Total, 306; Average hours of labor per week, 62.

Number of days' work in the year, 297; Average lost time from sickness, etc., to each person, 13 days.

Extract from Blank.

[OFFICE No. 24.]

A Manufacturer of Nitro Glycerine says:—

“Nearly all our employés own their own residences and have improved them, and are steadily paying off their mortgages. I always prefer Americans by birth, or those who, by long residence, have become Americanized. Engaged, as I have been, in this special business, a business of only ‘four years’ duration, surrounded with special difficulties—an exaggerated distrust and dread of accidents—compelled to transport it either in my own teams or boats, and never able to avail myself of the usual modes, my business has nevertheless extended from a return of three hundred dollars per month to eight thousand per month. I draw my labor from the most intelligent of the employés in factories, and pay 50 per cent. more than the current rates, while the time occupied never exceeds eight hours per day. During the four years these works have been established, usually employing about ten persons in the factory, three teamsters and two small boats,—and having transported some thirty tons of Nitro Glycerine—part to Nova Scotia—some to Wilkesbarre, only *one* casualty has ever occurred to my men. This was to a foreman while using the magazine as a bath house, after the day’s work was over.”

DIVISION III.—FOOD AND DRINK.

SUBDIVISIONS 1—2—6—8—9—12—13.

In the first Subdivision, Ale and Beer, the same results are found as those given in the previous division: viz.: the longer hours the lower pay. This is still further exemplified in Subdivision 6, Cigars. By reference to Nos. 2,290 and 2,570, it will be seen that there is a difference of 17 hours per week with exactly the same wages, and a difference in lost time against the long hours of 5 hours to $\frac{1}{2}$ an hour.

For wages of women in this Division see Class 3. The extracts from the Blank addressed to the Coöperative Cigar Makers’ Association of Westfield, are worthy of attention as recording an account of a strike against a Coöperative enterprise. A visit was made to this establishment, and in conversation with the gentlemen in charge, it was acknowledged that their Coöperation was nothing more than a Joint Stock Company, as the Association numbered but six members, and the number employed was 38.

TABLE 4.—Food and Drink.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.				HOURS OF LABOR.		Time for dinner, minutes.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	Totals.	Per Week.	Saturday.	One year ago.	Five years ago.
2,456	Ale, Beer, etc.,	1	30	31	-	31	-	-	75	-
2,524	" "	3	30	33	-	33	60	10	50	30
2,525	" "	-	49	49	-	49	72	12	17	-
436	Bakeries,	11	-	10	1	11	60	10	100	99
247	Cigars, etc.,	10	2	6	3	12 ¹	60*	8*	60	45
1,094	" "	10	34	35	-	44 ²	60	8	50	1
1,937	" "	4	2	5	-	6 ³	58	8	50	-
2,290	" "	7	25	13	-	32 ⁴	53	8	100	20
2,570	" "	5	10	2	3	15 ⁵	70	10½	90	5
179	Flour and Meal,	3	11	14	-	14	60	10	75	25
778	" "	10	7	17	-	17	60	10	75	10
1,090	" "	12	2	14	-	14	60	10	25	16
1,910	Flour,	19	-	18	1	19	60	10	-	-
1,116	Spice and Coffee,	11	25	21	10	36 ⁶	60	9	90	75
1,095	Sugar Refinery,	10	67*	77	3	80	60	10	75	5

* Unknown. 1 2 women, 1 child. 2 9 women. 3 1 woman. 4 19 women. 5 9 women, 1 child. 6 5 women.

TABLE 4.—Food and Drink—Continued.

No. of Blank.	O C C U P A T I O N .	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per month.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
2456	Ale, Beer, etc., .	\$2 75	-	12	-	\$22,493 00	35	\$642 65	\$2 05
2,524	" " .	2 75	-	12	-	28,000 00	32	875 00	2 80
2,525	" " .	2 67	-	12	-	27,639 58	34	812 92	2 60
436	Bakeries, .	2 00	-	-	-	6,968 00	11	633 45	-
247	Cigars, etc., .	3 00	\$1 00	12	-	5,000 00	12	416 66	1 33
1,094	" " .	3 33	-	12	6	31,200 00	44	709 09	2 95
1,937	" " .	2 75	-	12	1	3,000 00	4	750 00	2 50
2,290	" " .	3 00	-	12	$1\frac{1}{2}$	19,000 00	35	542 85	1 77
2,570	" " .	3 00	1 05	12	5	5,900 00	15	393 33	1 56
179	Flour and Meal, .	2 62	-	12	-	11,106 52	14	793 32	2 54
778	" " .	2 30	-	12	-	12,000 00	17	705 88	2 26
1,090	" " .	2 43	-	12	-	6,000 00	12	500 00	1 66
1,910	Flour, .	2 54	1 00	12	1	13,000 00	18	722 22	2 31
1,116	Spice and Coffee, .	2 35	1 00	12	-	16,600 00	32	518 75	1 66
1,095	Sugar Refinery, .	2 30	1 00	10	-	59,759 00	80	746 98	2 87

NOTE.—One of these establishments run 5 nights per week, 3 hours per night—one nearly every night. The number who cannot read or write, as given in 5 establishments, is foreign adults, 47, and in one, 12 native adults.

Totals and Averages to Table No. 4.

Number of Native,	116
“ Foreign,	294
Nationality Unknown,	3
Total,	413
Number of Men,	345
“ Young Persons,	21
“ Women,	45
“ Children,	2
Average wages of Men per day,	\$2 66
“ “ Young Persons per day,	1 01
Average hours of labor per week,	61
“ “ on Saturday,	9½
Number of days' work in the year,	307

Average lost time from sickness, etc., to each person, 32 days. Total wages, \$267,666.10. Average number employed, 395. Average earnings per year to each person, \$677.63. Average day wages, \$1.72.

Extract from Blanks.

[OFFICE BLANK, No. 1,416.]

Cigar Manufacturers' Coöperative Association makes the following statement:—

“We have adopted a system of manufacturing cigars with the mould, a German invention. Its use does away with the old style of shaping the cigar with the hand, and saves time, which is an advantage to our employes, as we pay the same prices per thousand which we paid previous to our adopting the moulds.”

“We make no difference in wages paid to any of our employes whether male or female, all being paid the same price per thousand. There are some cigars which require more skill than others to make them, and we give these jobs to the most competent workers, be they men or women. We have both sexes working on our best goods at this time.

“Where the system of extra hours of labor is adopted and continued for several months, men begin to commence working at a late hour in the morning, and design making a full day by the extra hours they work in the evening, and they too often think that their continuous labor calls for what they term recreation; yet ninety-five per cent. of this so-called recreation means squandering their surplus earnings in buying and drinking intoxicating bev-

erages. Women work more steadily than men either regular or extra time, but they are sufferers physically in consequence; because they will not take sufficient out-door exercise.

“The only experience of strikes which have come immediately under my notice within the last twelve months of which I can speak with any degree of accuracy, occurred in this town and was more particularly directed against this association. The cause was our adopting the system of using the cigar-mould, which the Cigar Makers Union, No. 28 of this Town, would not allow to be worked by any of its members. On learning this fact, we were much surprised, because the question had been discussed and acted upon some months previous to the time of which I write. Then it was decided to allow the use of the mould in the jurisdiction of the said union, and they were used in two shops, but when we desired to embrace the advantage we were denied, in consequence of the reconsideration of the Union’s former action. We were employing at the time about thirty-eight members of the Union and none other as Cigar Makers. We were determined to be on an equality with other manufacturers, and started a Coöperative Association to work the moulds. We had no sooner got the business working, than the parties striking discovered their mistake. A large shop was closed to them, and they immediately reconsidered their second action in the matter and allowed the use of moulds. We began putting on men again, but in consequence of a short supply of moulds, could not give employment to as many as the business required. At this time another difficulty arose. Some of the members of the Union who were antagonistic to moulds, without any experience, said that the labor was worth two dollars per thousand more for using them. A meeting was immediately called, and it was voted that an increase of the said amount must be paid, or the men should stop working for us. Of course we refused compliance with the unjust demand, and the strike was organized. Our men left us, much against their wishes. They acknowledged the wrong but they could not help it. They had told the truth to their fellow-craftsmen when interrogated for information, and were accosted with the vilest epithets and threatened with summary punishment. We lost about three hundred dollars in consequence of this strike. I should judge the non-employment of the number of men we would have employed during the time we were obtaining help outside the members of the Cigar Makers’ Union of this town, must have cost them, from loss of wages, about four hundred dollars. Upon being unofficially notified of the strike against moulds, or rather the advance asked for working with them, we called a meeting of our Association,

and unanimously voted to ask a reconsideration of the Union's action, setting forth in our request, facts to show the injustice of the action, and the disadvantage such wild legislation would lead to. They called a special meeting of the Union or its Executive Committee, and informed us that their demand was just, and in substance was their ultimatum. I replied at length and the matter ended. We procured skilled laborers from New York City who did not belong to the Union, who are making on an average more than forty per cent. per week more than any equal number of skilled laborers in any cigar factory in this town, not working with the moulds. The strength of the opposition to us was in the great number of what may be termed 'itinerant' cigar makers, of which class the Union is largely composed. They predominate, and too often thwart the good purpose and intent of the steady and respectable workmen; they are among the first to demand, and when brought to straitened circumstances, among the first to surrender. They rule by the virtue of ostracism, which ever suits them best. They know how to 'cry mad dog,' and because of their numerical strength, actually, by such means, persecute hundreds of their more worthy, hard-working, but unfortunate co-laborers—thus depriving them of the force their advice and counsel would lead to, and the many advantages and benefits which would accrue to themselves and their employers, by their more mature, more honest, and better sense. I sincerely believe that the laboring man has rights in his trade, which I honor him for maintaining in a fair, candid manner, and by the exercise of reason, justice and honor. I know, too, that too often employers, secure in their wealth, take an undue or mean advantage of the poor mechanic, and thereby engender that bitter feeling which leads to strife, when harmony ought to prevail. The general superior intelligence of the employer over the laboring man, coupled with his continued effort for gain, makes the former more frequently than his poorer companion, exercise sufficient judgment not to 'kick too hard against the pricks.' ”

[OFFICE No. 1,415.]

Cigar Maker :—

“Our observation of strikes outside our own business, leads us to the conclusion that they are only successful in bringing poverty and distress upon the originators, as they cause loss of time which it takes years to make up, even if successful, and the workmen have not been successful in strikes for the last five years. We are sorry to see no indication of improvement in a moral point of view, although in this town their general behavior has been much im-

proved in the last three years. We believe that the Cigar Makers' Union is an injury to the trade. In this we are joined by every respectable journeyman."

DIVISION IV.—MINERALS, ETC.

SUBDIVISION 2—6—9—10—13—14.

Two-thirds of the employés in these works are foreigners. The hours of labor per week are from 59 to 77—with one hour for dinner. The highest wages paid \$3.30, are in the Glass Works, running only 59 hours per week,—the lowest \$1.75 in a Lime Kiln. Hours of labor 60. In Quarrying where 125 men are employed, lost time per month, from sickness, is given as 4 days. The hours of labor are 77 per week; wages \$2.25 per day. Out of 4 making returns in these works, 59 *cannot read nor write.*

TABLE 5.—*Minerals, etc.*

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.				Hours of Labor. per week.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.		AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active oper- ation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m th .	Total wages, the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings to each person the past year employed.
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.		One year ago.	Five years ago.	Men.	Young Persons.					
1,400	Brick, .	10	30	40	—	40	—	—	\$2 00	—	—	—	—	—	—
1,435	" .	25	75	100	—	100	—	—	2 87	—	—	—	—	—	—
1,037	Glass, .	10	115	79	46	125	—	—	3 30	1 10	—	—	\$66,000 00	125	\$528 00
99	Lime, .	8	3	11	—	11	11	6	1 75	—	—	—	5,467 00	11	497 00
1,733	Marble,	6	8	11	3	14	100	2	—	—	10	2½	4,800 00	15	320 00
2,051	" .	32	16*	47	5	52	63	—	—	—	12	1	25,000 00	35	714 28
2,166	" .	5	45	50	—	50	—	—	2 29	—	12	—	25,000 00	40	625 00
2,303	" .	6	35	35	6	41	75	25	3 00	1 25	10	—	20,800 00	33	630 30
553	Quarries,	33	100	125	8	133	—	—	2 25	—	9	4	—	—	—
1,811	" .	20	105	114	11	125	—	—	3 04	1 50	—	—	—	—	—
2,138	Stone, hammered,	16	14	27	3	30	50	4	2 80	—	10	3	18,000 00	21	857 14

NOTE.—Total wages and number employed are given for seven establishments. No. who cannot read or write in four establishments are 59.

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native,	171	Number of Men,	639	Average wages of Men per day,	\$2 59
" Foreign,	546	" Young Persons,	82	" " Y. Persons per day,	1 28
Nationality Unknown,	4				

Average hours of labor per week, 62; Average hours on Saturday, 10.

Number of days work in the year, 278; Average lost time from sickness, etc. per year, to each person, 29 days.

Total wages, \$165,067.00; Av'ge number employed, 280; Av'ge earnings per year to each person, \$589.52; Av'ge day wages, to same, \$2.36.

* Unknown, 4.

Extract from Blanks.

[OFFICE No. 1,057.]

Flint Glass Manufacturer :—

“Strikes should be prevented by legislation. They injure both employer and employed. The tendency is to Irish labor, even to the most skilled mechanics. American labor is gradually but steadily becoming extinct.”

[OFFICE No. 1,119.]

Brick Maker :—

“My business, like that of most Brick Manufacturers, is limited to about six months duration. I employ mostly Canadians of French descent, with some Irish. My Foreman is a native. I hire by the month and pay the men their wages as they may want them, along during the season, and the balance when they get through, which is usually about the first of November. I pay all the way from thirty to a hundred dollars a month with board. Board most of the men myself. The ages of my men range from twenty to forty years; almost all the French can read and write, but it is a rare thing to find an Irishman that can do either. I have employed a great many for the past twenty-five years, and can recollect but two instances where they could write their names. I do not recollect any general strike that has occurred in my business; it is a very common thing for green hands to leave after they have worked a month or two, as they can get more wages to let themselves again for ‘old hands.’ I employ about twenty men and manufacture about a million of bricks annually.”

[OFFICE No. 1,051.]

Granite Worker :—

“We find no improvement in the condition of the employés. Getting higher wages makes the men profligate.”

[OFFICE No. 1,811.]

Granite Quarrying—

“We have had two strikes in the last thirty-three years. The first was a strike for ten hours, and those who would not work eleven hours were paid off. The second was at noon, when sixteen quarrymen refused to work unless they had more pay. They were

all discharged, and their places filled by other men. We shall continue to do so."

[OFFICE No. 1,816.]

Granite Worker—

"Have had strikes caused by some few uneasy spirits. They are generally unsuccessful. I raise wages in the Spring generally; did not in 1870, but was short of help all the way through. Men resumed work in a few days with a few exceptions. Always discharge the leader, or leaders, as they are almost always an uneasy class, and not easily satisfied."

DIVISION 5.—FANCY ARTICLES.

SUBDIVISIONS 2—5—6.

About three-fourths employed in a Button-factory are women; all native. Wages of men \$2 50 per day—women 87 cents per day. See visit of Bureau and Class III.

In two returns from Comb-factories giving total number employed as 125, 19 *cannot read or write*. Eight of these are minors. It is probable that half the number given as young persons in these establishments, are females. In No. 632 4 children are employed.

In the manufacture of Jewelry the highest wages of men are \$3.06—lowest \$1.83. Highest wages of women \$1.50. lowest \$1.00. Highest wages young persons \$1.50—lowest 66 cents.

No. 290 run 30 nights during the year—2 hours per night. The hours of labor in these several Industries are 59 and 60 per week.

TABLE 6.—*Fancy Articles.*

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.					HOURS OF LABOR.		Time for dinner, minutes.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Total.	Per Week.	Saturday.	One year ago.	Five years ago.
1,344	Buttons,	40	-	8	27	5	40	60	10	99	-
503	Combs,	15	30	31	4	10	45	60	10	75	60
632	"	29	51	38	-	38	80*	60	10	90	75
302	Jewelry,	59	16	53	6	16	75	59	9	65	20
230*	"	22	8	23	3	4	30	59	9	80	40
2,198	"	30	30	35	10	15	60	60	9	67	20

* 4 children, wages 75 cents per day.

TABLE 6.—*Fancy Articles*—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m'th.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.						
1,344	Buttons,	\$2 50	\$0 87	\$0 75	12	—	\$15,000 00	40	\$375 00	\$1 20
503	Combs,	1 75	1 12	1 00	11	2	18,000 00	44	375 00	1 04
632	"	2 00	80	1 32	12	—	36,000 00	80	450 00	1 57
302	Jewelry,	3 06	1 13	1 38	11½	3½	42,522 00	65	654 18	2 20
290	"	3 00	1 50	1 50	11	1	18,000 00	27	666 66	2 42
2,198	"	1 83	1 00	66	12	—	30,000 00	60	500 00	1 60

NOTE.—One establishment reports running 30 nights, 2 hours per night.

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native,	195; Number of Men,	188; Average wages of Men per day,	\$2 35
" Foreign,	" Women,	" Women per day,	1 07
	" Young Persons,	" Young Persons, per day,	1 10
Total,	" Children,	" Children,	75

Average hours of labor per week, 60; Average hours on Saturday, 9½.

Number of days' work in the year, 299; Average lost time from sickness, etc. per year, to each person, 14 days.

Total wages, \$159,522.00; Average number employed, 316; Average earnings per year to each person, \$504.81; Average day wages to same, \$1.77.

DIVISION 6.—HIDES AND LEATHER.

SUBDIVISIONS 1—2.

Thirteen returns under this head were received, including the several branches of tanning and currying, dressing morocco, shoe stock, etc. About 75 per cent. of the employés are foreign.

The hours of labor vary from $58\frac{1}{2}$ to 63 per week; half of the number giving 60 however. Time for dinner is from 30 to 75 minutes. The total number of adults unable to read or write in 4 establishments is 20.

The highest wages \$3.08, is in a Tanning and Currying establishment—the hours of labor are 59. The lowest wages, \$1.70 is in the manufacture of heel stiffenings; the hours of labor are 63. Ten women are here employed, whose average wages are 94 cents per day—and fifteen young persons, whose wages are the same.

TABLE 7.—*Hides and Leather.*

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.					HOURS OF LABOR.		Time for dinner, minutes.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	Total.	Per Week.	Saturday.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
16	Otis,	8	9	15	2	17	58½	8½	30	65	-
55	Cheshire,	3	9	12	-	12	59	9	60	50	33
199	New Bedford,	6	12	16	2	18	60	9	50	80	-
415	Peabody,	15	65	80	-	80	59	9	75	90	75
1,108	Charlestown,	15	110	125	-	125	60	9½	50	90	60
1,530	South Dedham,	21	19	32	8	40	59	9	60	80	37
1,625	Jamaica Plain,	7	5	12	-	12	60	10	60	75	10
1,684	Hingham,	9	8	17	-	17	60	10	60	100	70
429	Peabody,	5	7	7	5	12	59	9	60	100	-
432	"	27	98	119	6	125	60	9	60	50	-
2,068	Worcester,	13	29	42	-	42	60	10	60	75	10
2,575	Chelsea,	20	15¹	35	15	60²	63	10½	60	50	-

¹ Unknown, 25.

² Women, 10.

TABLE 7.—Hides and Leather—Continued.

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per mth.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
16	Otis,	\$2 10	\$1 52	11	2	\$7,549 67	16	\$512 89	\$1 94
55	Cheshire,	1 85	—	12	3	6,882 00	12	573 50	2 07
199	New Bedford,	2 25	1 00	12	—	9,210 00	20	460 50	1 50
415	Peabody,	3 08	—	12	—	60,400 00	80	755 00	2 41
1,108	Charlestown,	3 00	—	12	—	71,268 26	106	672 34	2 15
1,530	South Dedham,	2 58	1 37	12	—	28,000 00	40	700 00	2 24
1,625	Jamaica Plain,	2 66	—	—	—	13,000 00	20	650 00	—
1,684	Hingham,	2 00	—	12	1	10,064 00	17	592 00	1 97
429	Peabody,	2 50	1 33	9	—	12,000 00	18	666 66	2 84
432	"	2 00	1 33	12	—	65,000 00	120	541 66	1 73
2,068	Worcester,	2 25	—	12	3	29,293 00	39	725 46	2 62
2,575	Chelsea,	1 70	94	11	—	30,000 00	60	500 00	1 74

NOTE.—Number who cannot read, foreign adults, 21. One establishment reports amount of property owned by a wage-laborer as \$5,000—another as \$1,500.

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native,	149 ;	Number of Men,	512 ;	Average wages of Men per day,	\$2 33
" Foreign,	386 ;	" Young Persons,	38 ;	" " Young Persons per day,	1 24
Nationality unknown,	25 ;	" Women,	10 ;		
Total,	—560.				
Average hours of labor per week, 59 ; Average hours on Saturday, 9.					
Number of days' work in the year, 298 ; Average lost time from sickness, etc., per year, to each person, 23 days.					
Total wages, \$342,666.93 ; Av'ge number employed, 548 ; Av'ge earnings per year to each person, \$625.30 ; Av'ge day wages to same, \$1.14.					

Extracts from Blanks.

[OFFICE No. 16.]

Tanner and Currier :—

Thinks the general condition of his employés on the decline, with an increase of foreign help.

[OFFICE No. 55.]

Card Leather Tanners :—

“Do not object to Trades Unions if conducted with broad and charitable views, but they generally get into the hands of managers unfit for their positions, and become an injury instead of a benefit to employés.”

“Our employés generally take more pains in their personal appearance and are more particular to send their children to school, and more tasy about their homes, than formerly.”

[OFFICE No. 429.]

A Morocco Manufacturer says :—

“Improvement is indicated by the fact that more of them are providing themselves with homes. Particularly is this apparent among the foreign portion of them, of which there has been a large increase during the last fifteen years.”

[OFFICE No. 110.]

Leather Manufacturer :—

“We harbor no men of intemperate or other loose habits, so that our men as a class are remarkably respectable, frugal and industrious. Nationality is becoming less exclusively Irish; have several Swedes, who are generally good men.”

[OFFICE No. 2,566.]

Tanner and Currier remarks :—

“I give my skilled workmen more pay than is given in any manufactory of the kind in the State, and all my workmen get good pay for the amount of work they perform. I believe that ‘the laborer is worthy of his hire.’ Pay good, faithful men well, and make them willing and able to work. *Rum* is the worst thing we have to contend with. I do not favor less than ten hours for a legal day’s work. I have worked men from ten to eleven hours, but think ten hours a fair day’s work. I am opposed to the Eight Hour Movement as an employer of over twenty years. Favor piece-work in different departments of our business. We have a restless, dissatisfied ele-

ment among our Tanners and Curriers, they being mostly Irish. Would not be satisfied with eight hours any better than with ten or eleven. We employ natives for Foremen mostly."

[OFFICE No. 1,108.]

Tanners:—

"There is upon the increase among workingmen generally, an idea of the necessity of taking a vacation, of going upon excursions, and of more luxurious living generally, so that the demands for compensation are continually growing greater, involving a greater cost of manufacture, and the past year has been to the leather manufacturer one of very inadequate returns, not yielding for his capital and services one-half the legal rate for capital alone. Our testimony in relation to hours of labor, is, that ten hours is a fair period for a day's labor, and is satisfactory to industrious and fair-minded men generally, and whatever dissatisfaction may appear at any time among a class of operatives, is generally caused by the machinations of political demagogues for their own selfish purposes, or by the abstractions of uninformed or meddling theorists, who, having perhaps an inherited affluence, have not and cannot have a realization of the feelings and rights of either the employer or the employed.

"With the enormous increase of our foreign population, bringing with them largely the notions which prevail in older European countries, in regard to the antagonism of classes, and the agrarian ideas of infidelity, or a loose Christianity, whatever tends to unduly agitate or to cause a feeling of alienation from employers, is a blow struck at the success of republican institutions and the prosperity of the country."

DIVISION VIII.—PAPER.

SUBDIVISION 1.*

Two-thirds of the employés in these Paper Mills are foreigners. Men and women are nearly equal. Hours of labor vary from 54 to 96 per week, night work being included in the latter. Five mills run 24 hours per day. Highest wages of men, \$2.53; hours of labor, 72. Lowest wages, \$1.77; hours of labor not given. The next highest \$2.50; hours of labor, 59½. The highest wages of women are \$1.27; lowest, 68 cents. From eleven returns the total number *who cannot read nor write* is 227. In several of these mills only one child is employed in each. [See visits of Bureau and Class III. Woman's Work.]

* For other Subdivisions see Miscellaneous and Woman's Work.

TABLE 8.—Paper.

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.					HOURS OF LABOR.		Time for dinner, minutes.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Total.	Per Week.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
64	Dalton,	23	17	22	10	7	40*	65	60†	80	40
101	Lee,	7	16	8	11	4	23	60	60	80	50
102	"	22	18	15	19	5	40*	72	60	87	25
103	"	39	66	34	47	24	105	72	60	92	55
338	North Dighton,	21	3	20	-	4	24	58	60	-	-
791	Lawrence,	10	26	21	15	-	36	72	-	90	70
792	"	41	87	95	33	-	128	72	-	85	65
794	"	6	98 ¹	36	68	40	144	59	60	-	-
1,387	Holyoke,	15	50	26	28	10	65*	72	60	65	5
1,389	"	30	130 ²	59	101	6	166	58	60	90	33
1,392	"	2	55	25	27	5	57	72	45	50	-
1,393	"	23	86 ³	32	77	5	114	58	60	60	-
1,421	Westfield,	2	38	10	20	10	40	-	-	100	-
1,476	South Hadley,	84	3	27	48	12	87	54	-	80	60
1,833	Fitchburg,	6	30	16	15	5	36	60	60	50	17

¹ Unknown, 40. ² Unknown, 6. ³ Unknown, 5. * 1 child, † 45 minutes in winter.

TABLE 8.—*Paper*—Continued.

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m'th.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.						
64	Dalton,	\$1 90	\$0 75	\$1 25	12	1	\$15,000 00	40	\$375 00	\$1 25
101	Lee,	1 82	1 07	85	12	-	8,655 00	22	393 40	1 26
102	"	1 90	68	62	10½	-	12,000 00	40	300 00	1 09
103	"	2 00	75	67	12	-	38,546 69	105	367 11	1 11
338	North Dighton,	2 28	-	50	10½	½	13,185 00	24	549 37	2 04
791	Lawrence,	2 03	87	-	10½	-	18,527 45	42	441 13	1 73
792	"	2 14	87	-	10	1	60,529 59	125	484 23	1 93
794	"	2 00	87	87	12	-	40,000 00	104	384 61	1 23
1,387	Holyoke,	2 21	1 08	1 12	12	3	32,354 00	65	497 75	1 80
1,389	"	2 07	1 10	1 00	12	2	65,580 58	160	409 87	1 42
1,392	"	2 53	1 00	80	12	-	22,000 00	58	379 31	1 21
1,393	"	2 06	1 04	1 00	12	2	43,902 09	109	402 77	1 39
1,421	Westfield,	1 75	80	65	12	-	12,000 00	40	300 00	96
1,476	South Hadley,	2 10	88	88	12	2	36,300 12	87	417 24	1 44
1,833	Fitchburg,	2 09	75	75	8	½	13,387 94	29	461 65	1 49

NOTE.—Blank 102 reports the hours of labor from 36 to 72; No. 103, from 60 to 72; No. 1,387, from 42 to 72. In three establishments the hours of labor vary on Saturday from 6 to 12. Five establishments run every night.

Totals and Averages to Table No. 8.

Number of Native,	331
“ Foreign,	723
Nationality unknown,	51
<hr/>	
Total,	1,105
Number of Men,	446
“ Women,	519
“ Young Persons,	137
“ Children,	3
Average wages of Men per day,	\$2 06
“ “ Women per day,	89
“ “ Young Persons per day,	84
Average hours of labor per week,	62
“ “ on Saturday,	9
Number of days in active operation,	294
Average lost time from sickness, etc , per year, to each person,	
in days,	17
Total wages,	\$431,968 48
Average number employed,	1,050
“ earnings per year to each person,	\$411 39
“ day wages, “ “ “	1 44

Extracts from Blanks.

[OFFICE No. 1,387.]

Paper Co. :—

“It would be far better for our American young men to learn some trade, thoroughly, rather than to crowd into stores and counting-rooms, under the false notion that it is more genteel. Skilled labor is not abundant, but unskilled labor is in great plenty. Skilled labor commands from \$2.50 to \$4.00 per day ; unskilled, \$1.50 to \$1.75. Skilled labor in our manufactories requires from three to five years apprenticeship to master the trade, according to the capacity of the learner. We have a good many applicants for places in our mill, by young men twenty to thirty years of age, and when we ask them, ‘What is your trade?’ they answer, ‘I have no trade.’ To the question, ‘What have you been doing the past five or ten years?’ they reply, ‘*Oh, been jobbing around.*’ They ‘job around’ from three to six months in a place and learn no regular business or trade, and consequently they fall into the class of unskilled laborers and get only \$1.50 to \$1.75 per day, and then certain politicians raise a great hue and cry about unpaid labor, when in fact is the laborer’s own fault. We are flooded with \$1.50 men, but men worth \$3.00 a day are scarce.”

[OFFICE No. 2,069.]

Manufacturer of Envelopes :—

“Our employés are making more money, doing better work, and in better condition than they were ten years ago.”

DIVISION IX.—PRINTING, ETC.

SUBDIVISIONS 2—4—5—7.

More than one-half of the employés in this department are natives. The hours of labor, with one exception, in printing establishments, are 59 per week—with one hour for dinner. Nos. 1,054 and 2,429 run 60 and 80 nights respectively during the year, two and three hours per night. In the former three children are employed. The highest and lowest wages of men are \$3.70 and \$2.50 per day. Of women \$2.72 to \$1.16, the highest being, however, an exceptional case, referred to in remarks.

The average wages per day of Lithographers, only one return being received, is \$5.83. Hours of labor 56 per week.

A Type Foundry employing 82 persons, only 7 being foreign, runs 50 hours per week. Wages of men \$3.95 per day. Seven children are here employed.

TABLE 9.—*Printing, etc.*

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.						Hours of Labor, per Week.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
1,054	Printing,	25	75	72	-	25	3	59	75	50
1,340	"	23	13	16	9	11	-	60	50	10
2,128	"	25	9	15	3	16	-	59	100	-
2,253	"	70	10	30	15	35	-	59	80	50
2,429	"	24	22	29	7	10	-	59	96	50
2,392	Lithographer,	20	10	30	-	-	-	56	100	-
2,216	Electrotyping and Stereotyping, Type Foundry,	5	15	15	-	5	-	60	-	-
2,175		75	7	39	15	21	7	50	75	50

TABLE 9.—Printing, etc.—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.				No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m'th.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.						
1,054	Printing,	\$3 00	—	\$1 25	\$0 50	12	1	\$60,000 00 ¹	100	\$600 00	\$2 00
1,340	"	2 90	\$1 62	1 18	—	12	—	27,722 28	30	924 07	2 96
2,128	"	2 50	2 72 ²	42	—	12	—	—	—	—	—
2,253	"	3 16	1 33	1 00	—	12	2	35,000 00	65	538 46	1 86
2,429	"	3 70	1 16	1 41	—	12	—	42,668 54 ¹	46	927 57	2 97
2,392	Lithographer,	5 83	—	1 00	—	12	—	20,000 00	30	666 66	2 13
2,216	Electrotyping, etc.,	4 00	—	2 66	—	12	—	—	—	—	—
2,175	Type Foundry,	3 95	1 00	52	48	12	—	42,817 00	75	570 89	1 82

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native,	267	Number of Men,	246	Average wages of men per day,	\$3 62
" of Foreign,	161	" of Women,	49	" of women per day,	1 56
Total,	428	" of Y. Persons,	123	" of Y. persons per day,	1 18
		" of Children,	10	" of Children per day,	49
Average hours of labor per week 58. Average hours on Saturday 8½					
Number of days in active operation 312 — Ave. lost time from sickness etc. per year, to each person 18 days					
Total wages \$228,207.82. Ave. No. employed 346. Ave. earnings per year to each person \$659.56. Ave. day wages to same \$2.24.					

¹ Two establishments run 140 nights 2 and 3 hours each

² See extract from Office No. 2,128.

Extract from Blank.

[OFFICE No. 2,128.]

"Female compositors paid at same rate as male—30 cts. per one thousand ems.* One girl sets the advertisements which are "fat,"† i. e. profitable, and she makes more than any of the men. Printers as a rule, are much better paid than editors or reporters in proportion to their work. This was especially the case during the war; but the condition of the latter has since then been a little improved."

DIVISION X.—TEXTILE PRODUCTS, ETC.

SUBDIVISION 5—10. *Cotton and Print Cloths.*

Blanks were sent to all the Cotton and Print Cloth Mills in the State; some 100 in number; but as will be observed but 24 have returned, the city of Fall River *having the largest number of mills of any in the State, making no full return; Lowell and Lawrence but two.*

From the tables of returns the following facts are drawn. The foreign element predominates as three to one. The excess of women, young persons, and children, over men, is 6,916, a proportion of ten to three, and this proportion would doubtless hold good in all the mills in the State. In the case of No 818, Pacific Mills, Lawrence, no children are returned; although it is *known by investigation that children under 15 and many under 10 years of age are constantly employed in this establishment*, contrary to law. This is a well known fact in Lawrence, and an effort was made through the State Police to remedy this evil, but without effect.

We refer the Legislature to the report of our visit to the Evening School in Lawrence, and the facts there developed.

The highest number of hours of labor per week, as given, are $67\frac{3}{4}$; the lowest 60.

The average highest wages of men, \$2.07, are paid in Lawrence, No. 818, working $62\frac{1}{2}$ hours per week. The lowest wages, \$1.64, are paid at Springfield and Thorndike, these establishments running their machinery respectively 66 and $66\frac{2}{3}$ hours per week; an average of one cent a day less than that paid by No. 1,741, at Plymouth, working but 60 hours; the time for dinner still remaining an average of 45 minutes, against

* An em or m is a measure of Printers' work.

† A "fat" job is one where the work is very open and full of spacing.

the evils of which brief time every successive commission has spoken but without avail.

The wages of women are in the same relative proportion to the hours.

Of the 9,833 adults, 1,104, *or more than one-ninth cannot read nor write*, and as 8, out of 22 establishments, make no return to this question, it is believed that the proportion would be largely increased. It is hoped that the cause of this refusal to answer is not, in all cases, chargeable to shame, as in the case of one gentleman who testified that he did not dare count. The number of minors, 721, is almost one-seventh of the whole number, and this percentage we know would be largely increased, were all the facts given.

The number of children reported as having their legal schooling, *in nearly every case equals the number employed*, the Naumkeag Mills in Salem being the most marked exception.

No. 1,154, Lowell, returned no children employed, number attending school, 55, and another returned *two more at school than are on the pay rolls*.

Our investigations warrant us in saying that the School Law *is universally broken* ; and the reply to this question indicates an unwarranted carelessness, on the part of respondents. See Class III., and Visits of Bureau.

TABLE 10.—*Cotton and Print Goods.*

No. of Blank.	CITY OR TOWN.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.						HOURS OF LABOR.		Time for dinner, minutes.	NUMBER WHO CANNOT READ NOR WRITE.			No. of children having legal schooling.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Total.	Per Week.		Adults.	Foreign.	Minors.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
651	Newburyport, .	89	195	75	106	86	17	284	66	45	19	10		17	75	-
682	Salem, .	403	1,006	282	470	394	263	1,409	66	45	141	131		167	43	11
801 ¹	Lawrence, .	229	669	233	490	154	21	898	62½	60	-	-		21	74	-
914 ²	Conway, .	37	10	10	7	17	13	47	66	45	-	-		10	47	22
1,154	Lowell, .	-	-	425	997	-	-	1,422	66	45	310	50		55	-	-
1,209	" .	340	820	336	502	287	35	1,160	66	45	75	5		35	-	-
1,361	Springfield, .	66	487	168	224	109	52	553	66½	45	168	74		48	44	11
1,409	Holyoke, .	315	630	222	420	250	53	945	65	45	-	-		-	90	50
1,432	Chicopee, .	268	1,228	327	551	423	195	1,496	66	45	223	352 ¹		175	-	-
1,442	Thorndike, .	202	181	90	90	93	110	383	66	45	46	36 ²		-	75	25
1,478	South Hadley, .	83	234	121	76	87	33	317	67¾	45	16	3		36	95	80
1,611 ³	Walpole, .	12	41	35	-	9	9	53	-	-	-	-		-	-	-
1,741 ³	Plymouth, .	55	5	47	8	5	-	60	60	45	-	-		-	87	50
1,746 ⁴	" .	-	-	12	9	13	4	38	66	45	-	-		-	-	-
1,793 ²	Blackstone, .	30	-	5	4	4	17	30	64	45	-	-		17	90	75

	¹ Cotton and Woolen.										² Warp.		³ Batting.		⁴ Duck.		
1,870	Saundersville, .	30	95	34	62	10	19	125	66	8½	40	22	-	19	80	50	
2,012	Warren, .	53	238	104	95	64	28	291	66	9½	45	10	11	28	-	-	
32	North Adams, .	15	60	13	25	27	10	75	66	8	30	1	2	-	85	75	
818	Lawrence, .	700	3,100	918	1,311	1,571	-	3,800	62½	7½	60	-	-	-	75	20	
895	Griswoldville, .	177	65	120	74	30	18	242	66	8½	30	20	10	-	90	50	
1,185	Lowell, .	341	757	323	412	302	61	1,098	66	9¾	45	47	31	61	85	38	
1,953	Millbury, .	12	48	18	18	4	20	60	67	8¾	45	6	6	18	100	20	

TABLE 10.—*Cotton and Print Goods—Continued.*

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.				No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m'th.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wage to each person employed.
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.						
651	Newburyport, .	\$1 75	\$1 07	\$0 88	\$0 38	12	-	\$100,778 41	290	\$347 85	\$1 11
682	Salem, .	-	-	-	-	12	-	475,000 00	1,409	337 11	1 08
801	Lawrence, .	1 76	1 24	97	54	12	2½	-	-	-	-
914	Conway, .	2 00	1 08	79	-	12	3	16,624 00	45	369 42	1 33
1,154	Lowell, .	1 97	98	-	60	12	-	495,855 09	1,500	330 57	1 05
1,209	" .	1 74	1 00	92	47	12	-	394,064 74	1,114	353 73	1 13
1,361	Springfield, .	1 64	86	61	25	12	¼	184,943 16	542	341 22	1 09
1,409	Holyoke, .	1 75	1 00	75	50	12	1	180,000 00	1,100	163 63	54
1,432	Chicopee, .	1 94	80	88	53	-	-	469,160 45	1,496	313 60	-
1,442	Thorndike, .	1 64	1 00	1 02	41	11½	-	121,823 29	383	318 07	1 13
1,478	South Hadley, .	1 67	1 02	84	57	12	-	120,491 07	324	371 88	1 19
1,611	Walpole, .	2 18	-	1 25	75	-	-	-	-	-	-
1,741	Plymouth, .	1 65	1 00	1 25	-	11	1	12,000 00	40	300 00	1 09
1,746	" .	2 00	90	1 00	65	-	-	-	-	-	-
1,793	Blackstone, .	-	-	-	-	12	5	7,000 00	24	291 66	1 15
1,870	Saundersville, .	1 80	1 05	83	38	12	-	40,522 03	125	324 17	1 03

2,012	Warren, . . .	\$1 75	\$1 12	\$1 00	\$0 53	12	1	\$90,256 67	293	\$308 04	\$1 02
32	North Adams, . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	22,277 48	75	297 16	-
818	Lawrence, . . .	2 07	1 24	82	-	12	2 $\frac{5}{8}$	1,300,000 00	3,760	345 74	1 24
895	Griswoldville, . .	1 70	1 30	1 00	83	11	-	70,000 00	242	289 25	1 01
1,185	Lowell, . . .	1 83	97	86	54	12	$\frac{1}{2}$	340,734 05	1,100	309 75	1 01
1,953	Millbury, . . .	2 00	95	84	47	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	16,127 29	58	278 05	1 05

NOTE.—Five establishments report total number of nights at work as 409, hours per night averaging 2 $\frac{1}{2}$. One establishment reports one accident; another, “slight;” another, “several.” Six report 73 per cent. of new machinery. One gives name of a wage-laborer owning property to the amount of \$2,500; another, \$4,000; and still another, \$10,000. The last five on the Table are Print cloths.

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native, . . .	3,457;	Number of Men, . . .	3,918;	Average wages of Men per day, . . .	\$1 83
“ Foreign, . . .	9,869;	Women, . . .	5,951;	“ Women per day, . . .	1 03
Nationality unknown, . . .	1,460;	Young Persons, . . .	3,939;	“ Young Persons per day, . . .	91
Total, . . .	—14,786;	Children, . . .	978;	“ Children per day, . . .	52

Average hours of labor per week, 66; Average hours on Saturday, 8 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Number who cannot read nor write in 14 establishments—foreign adults, 1,104—minors, 721.

“ of children having legal schooling in same number of establishments, 727; Number of Tenements, 1,377.

Percentage of employés at work one year ago, 77; five years ago, 41.

Number of days in active operation, 307; Average lost time from sickness, etc. per year, to each person, 23 days.

Total wages, \$4,457,657.73; Av’ge number employed, 12,920; Av’ge earnings per year to each person, \$345.79; Av’ge day wages, to same \$1.21.

Extracts from Blanks.

[OFFICE No. 52.]

Manufacturer of Print Cloths :—

“Those who have remained with us for a term of years, have invariably improved in character and condition; such hands become good livers, and good members of society. Transient help is a curse. Foreigners readily fall into our habits and customs, except into that of tidiness.”

[OFFICE No. 818.]

Manufacturer of Print Cloths :—

“Never discharged one person except when parties interfered with the labor of others, and so diminished our product.

“Think the condition has not materially changed except on account of the change in their nationality.”

[OFFICE No. 1,361.]

Cotton Manufacturer :—

“About 85 per cent. of our employés are foreigners—French and Irish. There is less drunkenness and other vices among them, than five years since. This can be substantiated by facts.”

[OFFICE No. 1,748.]

Cotton Manufacturer :—

“Had a strike in the Weaving department arising from misconception on the part of the weavers in regard to their pay for finer work. They resumed work, however, with a loss of time of only one day.”

[OFFICE No. 1,741.]

Batting Co :—

“Never had any strike as a whole, but a part of our help have struck for different reasons. But we always control our own business.

“We are getting some colored help which is the best help we can get—most reliable,—ten years ago a white girl would not work with a colored girl, now no objection is made.

“I think that 15 per cent. of the wages of common hands goes to pay for beer and something stronger. That is the great reason

they don't save money. Their families can't get it. I have read your last report with great interest, but you must change the habits of the *men* before you can do much."

SUBDIVISIONS 2—4—6—7—9—12—13—14.

The excess of Foreign over Native, in these manufactures, is as two to one; of women and minors, in about the same proportion. There is more uniformity in the hours of labor, although the range is from 60 to 66. The time allowed for dinner is longer than in the Cotton Mills; and the number who can neither read nor write is lower.

No. 298 reports working 50 *nights*—11 *hours per night*, and No. 2,518—156 *nights of 3 hours each*, making the average hours per week for this *time* 75 or 78. The Silk factory run two hours extra for thirty nights.

In the manufacture of Elastic and Rubber Goods the highest average wages of men are \$2.52, the lowest \$1.75. The highest average wages of women are \$1.30, the lowest \$1.00. (For particulars relating to Elastic, Jute and Flax see visits of Bureau.)

TABLE 11.—Miscellaneous Textile Fabrics.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.						HOURS OF LABOR.		Time for dinner, minutes.	No. of children having legal schooling.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Total.	Per Week.	Satur- day.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
671	Bagging or Jute, .	-	-	-	-	-	-	250	66	9½	-	-	-
298	Braid, .	20	90	6	104	-	-	110	65½	9	-	-	-
1,740	Cordage, .	60	180	187	-	23	30	240	60	10	30	90	80
1,208	Elastic Rubber G'ds	19	2	2	11	5	3	21	60	5½	-	50	-
1,480	"	85	225	36	238	20	16	310	60	8½	3	60	32
1,481	"	13	17	20	-	7	3	30	60	10	-	80	23
1,513	"	15	45	8	24	18	10	60	66	8½	-	90	-
2,578	"	112	128	112	48	75	5	240	60	8½	10	75	40
526	Flax, .	138	182	116	72	85	4	320	64½	9½	-	-	-
2,289	Nets, .	3	17	-	15	5	-	20	66	10	4	75	15
1,492	Silk, .	116	233	36	27	200	86	349	60	9½	-	60	-
1,394	Thread, .	-	-	133	174	117	41	465	65	9	41	80	-

TABLE 11.—Miscellaneous Textile Fabrics—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.				No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m th .	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year.	Average of day wages.
		Men.	W men.	Young Persons.	Children.						
671	Bagging or Jute, .	\$1 75	\$1 75	\$1 75	\$1 75	12	-	\$50,000 00	250	\$200 00	\$0 64
298	Braid, .	1 00	1 25	-	-	12	-	24,308 02	110	220 98	70
1,740	Cordage, .	2 18	-	77	40	12	10	105,635 89	230	459 28	2 39
1,208	Elastic Rubber Goods, .	1 75	1 00	87	50	10	1	4,639 00	15	309 26	1 23
1,480	"	2 43	1 12	80	56	12	-	88,000 00	300	286 66	1 91
1,481	"	2 52	-	1 21	65	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	19,588 89	37	529 42	2 10
1,513	"	1 75	1 33	1 00	54	12	2	16,300 00	50	326 00	1 13
2,578	"	2 12	1 15	1 05	45	12	2	91,000 00	220	413 63	1 43
526	Flax, .	2 06	98	88	56	12	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	-	-	-
2,289	Nets, .	2 50	85	62	-	12	1	7,000 00	92	76 08	25
1,492	Silk, .	2 31	1 12	1 20	42	12	-	-	-	-	-
1,394	Thread, .	1 88	1 07	88	50	12	1	155,329 72	425	365 48	1 21

NOTE.—Three establishments report as running 236 nights, at 2, 3 and 11 hours per night.

Totals and Averages to Table No. 11.

Number of Native,	581
“ Foreign,	1,119
Nationality Unknown,	715
Total,	— 2,415
Number of Men,	656
“ Women,	713
“ Young Persons,	555
“ Children,	198
Not designated,	293
Average wages of Men per day,	\$2 02
“ “ Women per day,	1 14
“ “ Young Persons per day,	1 00
“ “ Children per day,	63
Average hours of labor per week,	62
“ “ on Saturday,	9
Number who cannot read nor write in three establishments,	19
“ children having legal schooling,	88
Percentage of employés at work one year ago,	73
“ “ “ five years ago,	38
Number of tenements in five returns,	115
“ days in active operation,	308
Average lost time from sickness, etc., per year, to each person, in days,	35
Total wages,	\$561,801 52
Average number employed,	1,729
“ earnings per year to each person,	\$324 92
“ day wages, “ “ “	1 19

SUBDIVISION 16.—*Woolens.*

In the Woollen Manufactures the excess of the foreign element is more marked than in the Cotton, the proportion being as 3 to 1, while the ratio of women and minors to men is about the same.

The hours of labor average longer than in any other department, the highest being 99 to 72, the lowest 64.

The time for dinner averages about the same as in the Cotton Manufactures, 45 minutes.

Not half of the respondents have given facts relative to illiteracy, the larger establishments wholly avoiding any reference thereto,—nor to the next question, relative to the schooling of children, so that nothing can be learned from the returns in this important matter. We are more and more persuaded of the *determined neglect of the school laws*.

The average percentage of persons employed one and five years ago, is a little less than in Cotton mills.

The higher wages paid to men, \$2.12, are in a mill at Saugus, No. 871, working 66 hours per week, and the lowest is \$1.05, in another, No. 1,771, working the same time.

A mill at Monson working 72 hours, pays \$2.06, and one at Middleborough, working 66 hours, \$2.02, a difference of 6 hours per week and 4 cents pay.

The last establishment, No. 1,703, paid the highest to women \$1.44, the lowest paid 87 cents being No. 117.

The remarks upon the employment and schooling of children under the Cotton Table are true of these; the only exception being that there are not as many small children employed in Woolen as in Cotton Mills; yet many are employed even under 10 years of age as will be seen by reference to visits by the Bureau.

But one slight accident is reported, though we are informed by trustworthy citizens of many of the towns, that they are of constant occurrence from unprotected machinery and from low hanging shafting.

TABLE 12.—*Woolen Goods.*

No. of Blank.	CITY OR TOWN.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.						HOURS OF LABOR.		Time for dinner, minutes.	NUMBER WHO CANNOT READ NOR WRITE.			PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Total.	Per Week.		Saturday.	Adults.	Minors.	One year ago.	Five years ago.
117	Gt. Barrington, .	25	275	100	100	75	25	300	66	9	45	15	5	-	-
126	Hancock, .	8	33	25	7	8	1	41	67	8	60	-	-	66	20
509	Groveland, .	10	196	97	72	-	37	206	66	10	45	-	-	87	62
512	Methuen, .	50	150	60	100	20	20	200	65	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	-	-	-	-
535	North Andover, .	92	33	36	24	38	27	125	66	9	45	19	-	90	80
536	"	37	73	36	40	15	19	110	66	9	45	1	1	75	-
871	Saugus, .	20	90	54	35	9	12	110	66	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	-	-	85	50
951	West Chelmsford, .	10	120	70	32	20	8	130	66	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	-	-	80	40
957 ¹	Lowell, .	-	3	453	606	355	-	1,414	66	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	-	-	47	20
1,092	Billerica, .	26	42	34	19	9	6	68	66	8	45	2	-	90	80
1,151 ²	Lowell, .	-	4	377	1,138	46	4	1,565	66	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	-	-	-	-
1,175	"	33	36	21	33	12	3	69	65	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	-	-	-	-
1,190	"	7	49	28	3	25	-	56	66	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	-	-	80	25
1,192	"	-	65	20	30	10	5	65	-	-	60	-	-	50	25
1,272	Rock Bottom, .	13	62	32	15	17	11	75	66	10	45	-	-	67	25

1,386	Holyoke,	.	16	84	32	25	40	3	100	67	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	45	15	18	-	50	12
1,449	Monson,	.	14	36	16	11	20	3	50	72	12	30	3	-	3	80	30
1,703	Middleborough,	.	57	46	66	14	18	5	103	66	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	11	1	5	62	37
1,770	"	.	10	20	10	15	5	-	30	64	9	45	-	-	-	90	-
1,771	"	.	3	34	16	16	5	-	37	66	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	-	-	-	90	-
1,780	Auburn,	.	8	37	25	15	3	2	45	66	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	-	-	-	50	-
1,890	Worcester,	.	29	51	35	26	19	-	80	65	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	4	1	-	66	37
1,967	South Royalston,	.	35	30	30	17	18	-	65	71	11	45	-	-	-	80	50
2,003	Uxbridge,	.	21	91	60	18	28	6	112	66	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	20	-	6	80	30
2,005	"	.	38	29	31	15	15	6	67	-	-	45	4	-	6	64	31
2,006	"	.	6	154	75	52	23	10	160	66	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	45	25	6	10	75	10
2,091	Cherry Valley,	.	20	38	24	20	8	6	58	66	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	45	3	-	6	50	-

¹ Carpets and Lastings.² Lowell Manufacturing Company, Carpets.³ Nationality unknown 1,414.⁴ Nationality unknown 1,565.

TABLE 12.—*Woolen Goods*—Continued.

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.				No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per mth.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.						
117	Great Barrington, .	\$1 60	\$0 87	\$0 90	\$0 75	12	-	\$100,000 00	300	\$333 33	\$1 06
126	Hancock, .	1 40	1 23	68	-	-	-	9,129 45	40	228 23	-
509	Groveland, .	1 90	1 25	-	63	12	-	95,000 00	190	500 00	1 60
512	Methuen, .	1 56	1 11	1 15	67	12	-	68,191 75	210	324 72	1 04
535	North Andover, .	1 65	1 00	1 00	90	12	-	45,000 00	125	360 00	1 15
536	" .	1 67	1 33	85	60	12	-	42,000 00	110	381 81	1 22
871	Saugus, .	2 12	1 17	67	67	12	1	43,834 00	110	398 49	1 32
951	West Chelmsford, .	2 00	1 08	65	-	11½	-	50,000 00	130	384 61	1 28
957	Lowell, .	1 67	1 05	85	-	12	-	487,273 98	1,346	362 01	1 16
1,092	BillERICA, .	1 80	1 10	1 00	72	12	-	27,000 00	70	385 55	1 24
1,151	Lowell, .	1 92	1 00	92	60	12	-	557,086 97	1,843	302 27	96
1,175	" .	1 87	1 25	1 00	-	12	-	16,823 24	54	311 54	99
1,190	" .	1 73	1 40	1 10	-	12	-	30,000 00	56	535 71	1 71
1,192	" .	-	-	-	-	12	-	50,000 00	60	833 33	2 73
1,272	Rock Bottom, .	1 79	1 27	1 37	58	12	-	33,307 00	87	383 98	1 23
1,386	Holyoke, .	1 62	1 37	92	50	12	2	42,000 00	100	420 00	1 52

1,449	Monson, . . .	\$2 06	\$1 00	\$1 22	\$1 00	12	$\frac{1}{2}$	\$22,000 00	50	\$40 00	\$1 45
1,703	Middleborough, . . .	2 02	1 44	90	50	12	—	41,363 51	100	413 65	1 32
1,770	“ . . .	1 54	1 00	90	—	12	2	9,600 00 ¹	25	384 00	1 45
1,771	“ . . .	1 05	85	92	—	11	$\frac{1}{4}$	10,000 00 ¹	30	333 33	1 17
1,780	Auburn, . . .	1 75	1 25	90	50	6	4	10,500 00	45	233 33	1 55
1,890	Worcester, . . .	1 97	1 10	85	—	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	32,290 98	80	403 63	1 40
1,967	South Royalston, . . .	1 60	1 12	91	—	12	1	24,000 00	65	369 23	1 23
2,003	Uxbridge, . . .	1 26	1 05	99	60	12	2	43,700 00	114	385 96	1 34
2,005	“ . . .	1 41	1 14	1 09	96	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	27,772 87	67	414 52	1 48
2,006	“ . . .	1 50	1 25	95	52	12	$\frac{1}{6}$	54,000 00	160	337 50	1 08
2,091	Cherry Valley, . . .	1 64	1 12	1 20	72	—	—	11,547 00	58	199 08	—

¹ Two establishments report 62 nights' work, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours per night each.

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native, . . .	588;	Number of Men, . . .	1,863;	Average wages of Men per day, . . .	\$1 66
“ Foreign, . . .	1,874;	“ Women, . . .	2,498;	“ Women per day, . . .	1 16
Nationality Unknown, . . .	2,979;	“ Young Persons, . . .	861;	“ Young Persons per day, . . .	98
Total, . . .	5,441.	“ Children, . . .	219;	“ Children per day, . . .	68

Average hours of labor per week, 66; Average hours on Saturday, 9 $\frac{1}{2}$; Time for dinner, 45 minutes.

Number who cannot read nor write in twelve establishments, foreign adults, 122; in six establishments, minors, 32.

“ of children attending school in thirteen establishments, 159; Number of tenements, 23 establishments, 531.

Percentage of employés at work one year ago, 72; five years ago, 38.

Number of days in active operation, 299; Average lost time from sickness etc per year, to each person, 15 days.

Total wages, \$1,983,420.75; Av'ge number employed, 5,625; Av'ge earnings per year to each person, \$352.60; Av'ge day wages to same, \$1.24.

Extracts from Blanks.

[OFFICE No. 71.]

Manufacturer of Woollen Goods :—

“Always discharge strikers, and give notice to our neighbors of the reason of such discharge.

“The employés on the average are far more thrifty—live better—are better clothed than formerly. Their children attend school both day and Sunday school—and there is very much less intemperance than formerly. Low groceries can be reached close by us but we seldom have to discharge a man for drunkenness. We have found good counsel and kind words most effective in increasing manly pride, which we consider the greatest bar to degrading vice. We have families or their descendants who have been with us over forty years, and they have a very conservative and genial influence over our people, as they never encourage any insubordination. Within fifteen years we have employed a larger proportion of Germans, but for the past ten years of Canadian French. These latter are more inclined to roam, and do not settle down permanently as other foreigners do.”

[OFFICE No. 512.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“Strikes are very bad for both employer and employed, but worse for the latter, as he has nothing but what he has worked for.

“No very special improvement. Increase of French and Irish. We are a good deal at the mercy of our employés, and they *run* us, instead of our running the mill.”

[OFFICE No. 1,093.]

A Woolen Manufacturer says in answer to question No. 20 :

“Improved mainly by being better educated and upon the whole are more temperate.”

[OFFICE No. 1,770.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“Think the employés are growing worse and worse every year. More independent.”

CLASS V. MECHANICAL.

DIVISION I.—BOATS AND SHIPS.

SUBDIVISION 1—4—6.

Very little is being done in this Industry. The hours of labor vary from 48 to 60. No. 492 reports but 40 hours per week, but as the hours on Saturday were given as 10, there is evidently a mistake.

No. 639 reports 48 hours for 4 months, 60 hours for 8 months; wages, \$3.00 per day for 5 months, \$1.75 for 3 months. The total wages are omitted, because of evident mistake, as for instance:—No. 563 reports total wages for two persons \$4,132, or \$2,066 per year on an average wage \$3.10 per day. No. 639 gives \$605.25 total wage of 10 men, or \$60.62 for 8 months work of \$2.36 per day. The number who cannot read nor write is given as 10.

DIVISION II.—HOUSE BUILDING.

SUBDIVISION 1—2—3—4—8—13

In House Building, etc. the natives predominate. The hours of labor are 60 per week, with but one exception—No. 1,942—a Sash and Blind establishment—where the rule is 66 hours—for nine months in the year and 60 for three months.

The number who cannot read nor write in 5 establishments is 39 adults and 1 minor—all foreign.

TABLE 14.—House Building.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.				NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.				Hours of Labor, per Week.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
					Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
1,173	Blinds, Doors, Sash,	.	.	.	14	7	20	1	60	20	75
1,942	" "	.	.	.	28	23	43	8	66	90	75
1,285	" "	.	.	.	25	10	32	3	60	75	50
1,382	Brick and Stone Masons,	.	.	.	16	40	56	-	60	50	-
2,235	" "	.	.	.	18	90	105	3	60	15	10
251	Builders,	.	.	.	22	32	54	-	60	50	25
344	" "	.	.	.	26	-	26	-	60	75	60
561	" "	.	.	.	29	6	35	-	60	25	8
1,396	" "	.	.	.	20	53	63	10	60	25	-
599	Carpenters,	.	.	.	12	-	10	2	60	80	20
815	" "	.	.	.	22	11	30	3	60	30	12
1,383	" "	.	.	.	8	11	17	2	60	85	-
1,528	" "	.	.	.	12	4	14	2	60	80	5
2,486	" "	.	.	.	7	5	9	3	60	50	-
2,498	" "	.	.	.	61	33	85	9	60	75	60
1,212	" "	.	.	.	14	6	20	-	60	60	-
2,252	" "	.	.	.	12	2	14	-	60	10	77
2,169	Roofers,	3	22	25	-	60	100	80

TABLE 14.—House Building—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per mth.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
1,173	Blinds, Doors, Sash,	\$2 00	\$1 00	12	2	\$10,550 00	16	\$659 37	\$2 28
1,924	" "	2 50	1 25	12	3	30,000 00	47	638 29	2 31
1,285	" "	2 75	1 00	12	1	9,000 00	26	345 92	1 15
1,382	Brick and Stone Masons,	3 31	-	-	-	30,000 00	30	1,000 00	-
2,235	" "	2 87	1 83	12	3	20,000 00	75	266 66	96
251	Builders,	2 75	-	9	5	12,871 58	47	273 86	1 44
344	" "	2 40	-	11	1	13,000 00	20	650 00	2 36
561	" "	3 00	-	12	1	25,000 00	40	625 00	2 08
1,396	" "	2 50	1 50	12	1	28,800 00	50	576 00	1 92
599	Carpenters,	2 50	1 25	11	5	6,600 00	8	825 00	3 57
815	" "	2 40	1 42	12	21 ¹ / ₄	11,129 87	20	556 49	1 95
1,383	" "	3 20	2 50	12	5	36,000 00	19	1,894 73	7 51
1,528	" "	2 69	1 50	10	41 ¹ / ₂	11,468 00	16	716 74	3 33
2,486	" "	3 16	1 33	12	1	8,000 00	10	800 00	2 66
2,498	" "	2 84	1 00	12	2	58,848 00	88	668 72	2 32
1,212	" "	2 50	-	-	-	15,000 00	22	681 81	-
2,252	" "	3 25	-	12	3	13,000 00	14	928 57	3 36
2,169	Roofers,	2 75	-	12	2	16,799 54	30	559 98	1 91

NOTE.—For explanation of excess of average wages in last column of this and some of the following tables, see p. 14.

Totals and Averages to Table 14.

Number of Native,	349
“ Foreign,	355
Total,	704
Number of Men,	658
“ Young Persons,	46
Average wages of Men, per day,	\$2 74
“ “ Young Persons,	1 41
“ hours of labor, per week,	60
Number of days in active operation,	281
Average lost time from sickness, etc., per year to each person, in days,	27
Total wages,	\$356,066 99
Average number employed,	578
“ earnings, per year, to each person,	\$616 03
“ day wages, “ “ “	2 42
Percentage of employés at work one year ago,	55
“ “ “ five years ago,	43

DIVISION III.—FURNITURE.

SUBDIVISIONS 2—3—4—5—6.

Nearly two-thirds of the employés in this industry are natives. Hours of labor are from 53 to 60 per week. Number who cannot read nor write, given in 2 returns, is 2 adults and 1 minor.

Highest wages, \$1.00 per day, are paid in an Organ Manufactory, and the lowest, \$1 58 in Cabinet-making.

Hours of labor the same.

TABLE 15.—Furniture etc.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.				Hours of Labor, per Week.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
875	Cabinet Making,	10	1	9	2	60	9	4
1,105	" "	16	29	42	3	60	60	-
1,159	" "	17	8	25	-	60	-	10
901	Chairs,	51	1	46	6	60	75	90
1,822	" "	24	2	26	-	60	100	-
1,852	" "	40	10	40	10	60	90	50
1,853	" "	50	5	55	-	60	75	-
874	Furniture,	-	17	16	1	60	100	-
876	" "	20	-	20	-	60	-	-
1,900	" "	51	-	51	-	60	-	-
2,186	" "	25	50	65	10	59	75	-
2,211	" "	8	5	10	3	53	61	-
2,538	" "	20	12	25	7	60	75	-
906	Musical Instruments,	28	3	31	-	60	75	20
1,025	" "	80	20	89	11	60	60	-
2,100	" "	75	15	85	5	60	33	17
2,106	" "	23	3	23	3	60	75	-
629	Picture Frames,	6	22	16	12	60	90	-
2,326	" "	10	5	13	2	60	90	60

TABLE 15.—Furniture, etc.—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per mth.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
875	Cabinet Making,	\$1 58	\$0 75	—	—	\$5,041 02	9	\$560 11	—
1,105	"	2 45	1 00	10	1½	30,000 00	40	750 00	\$3 06
1,159	"	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
901	Chairs,	2 50	1 00	12	2	37,202 00	70	531 45	1 88
1,822	"	2 50	—	—	—	19,000 00	25	760 00	—
1,852	"	2 00	2 00	12	1½	25,000 00	50	500 00	1 70
1,853	"	2 25	—	12	2	35,000 00	55	636 36	2 20
874	Furniture,	2 25	1 00	12	—	10,400 00	17	611 76	1 96
876	"	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1,900	"	2 75	—	—	—	28,703 77	54	531 55	—
2,186	"	3 16	75	11½	—	57,000 00	75	760 00	2 54
2,211	"	2 25	71	12	—	6,752 00	13	519 38	1 66
2,558	"	2 40	75	12	5	17,500 00	30	583 33	2 31
906	Musical Instruments,	2 56	—	12	5	13,000 00	30	433 33	1 71
1,025	"	3 17	1 25	12	½	85,000 00	80	1,062 50	3 47
2,100	"	3 17	1 58	12	2½	80,000 00	80	1,000 00	3 47
2,106	"	3 00	1 33	12	1	16,000 00	24	666 66	2 22
629	Picture Frames,	2 06	87	10	—	8,000 00	28	285 71	1 20
2,326	"	3 00	50	12	—	13,000 00	15	866 66	2 77

NOTE.—Number who cannot read and write in two establishments is given as one adult each; in one, 1 minor. One establishment gives the highest amount of property owned by a wage-laborer as \$4,000.

Totals and Averages to Table No. 15.

Number of Native,	554
“ Foreign,	208
<hr/>	
Total,	762
Number of Men,	687
“ Young Persons,	75
Average wages of Men per day,	\$2 59
“ “ Young Persons per day,	89
“ hours of labor per week,	59½
Hours of labor on Saturday,	9½
Number of days in active operation,	304
Average days' lost time from sickness, etc., per year to each person,	28
Total wages,	\$486,598 79
Average number employed,	695
“ earnings past year to each person,	\$700 14
“ day wages, “ “	2 53
Percentage of employés at work one year ago,	71
“ “ “ five years ago,	35

In addition to returns tabulated, several imperfect returns were made containing the following facts;—from three establishments total number returned was 342. Native 190—Foreign 152—Men 323—Young persons 19—Hours of labor per week in two establishments, 60—on Saturday 10.

Wages of men in one was \$2.25 per day—in another \$2.87—that of young persons in each \$1.00. These were both chair factories. In an organ establishment wages of men were \$1.00.

DIVISION IV.—IMPLEMENTS.

SUBDIVISIONS 1—3—4—5—6—7.

Many of the foreign in this department are German; the remainder being English and Irish. The business is a very laborious one and in the Cutlery Works it would appear to be very unhealthy, as a large percentage of the employés are grinders and are obliged to stoop forward over the grindstone and inhale the fine particles of steel dust. The men are hollow-chested and sharp-featured, and are reported to be, in many instances, very intemperate.

Further particulars of this business will be found in Visits of the Bureau.

TABLE 16.—*Implement, etc.*

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.				Hours of Labor, per Week.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
1,427	Agricultural Implements,	24	36	60	-	60	67	30
1,911	"	8	-	8	-	60	80	20
2,045	"	51	75	126	-	60	80	50
911	Cutlery, .	25	558	495	78 ¹	60	75	50
1,181	"	30	50	80	-	60	50	20
1,359	Fire Arms,	221	106	327	-	48	-	-
2,205	"	-	2	2	-	60	-	-
192	Machinists' Tools,	72	5	35	16 ¹	59	53	-
1,941	"	7	14	20	1	50	75	25
1,543	Vises,	13	6	14	5	60	67	-
2,011	Tools,	14	11	16	9	55	100	-
2,099	"	22	4	26	-	60	75	-

¹ The number of women employed in two establishments 36. No. of foreign adults who cannot read nor write given in 6 establishments, 51—minors 2. The hours of labor on Saturday average 9.

TABLE 16.—*Implements, etc.—Continued.*

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per month.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
1,427	Agricultural Implements,	\$1 93	—	12	1	\$31,439 33 ¹	52	\$604 60	\$2 01
1,911	"	2 50	—	10 ¹ / ₂	3	4,650 00	12	387 50	1 60
2,045	"	2 50	—	12	1 ¹ / ₂	88,395 00	145	609 62	2 07
911	Cutlery,	2 27	\$0 62	—	—	268,023 59	575	466 12	—
1,181	"	2 85	—	12	3	60,000 00	80	750 00	2 71
1,359	Fire Arms,	2 12	—	12	—	482,051 72	673	716 27	2 29
2,205	"	—	—	12	3	1,716 00	2	858 00	3 10
192	Machinists' Tools,	2 16	88	12	1	27,700 00	62	446 77	1 48
1,941	"	2 83	1 25	10	4 ¹ / ₂	13,500 00	21	642 85	2 99
1,543	Vises,	2 25	1 57	10	1	21,780 00	35	622 28	2 48
2,011	Tools,	2 25	1 25	—	—	8,500 00	30	283 33	—
2,099	"	2 28	—	12	1	13,000 00	25	520 00	1 70

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native,	•	487 ;	Number of Men,	•	1,209 ;	Average wages of Men per day,	•	\$2 33
" of Foreign,	•	867 ;	" of Young Persons,	•	109 ;	" of Young Persons per day,	•	1 11
		—	" of Women,	•	36 ;			
Total,	•	1,354						
Average hours of labor, 58. Percentage of employes at work one year ago, 72 ; five years ago, 32.								
Number of days in active operation, 291. Average lost time from sickness, etc., per year to each person, 23 days.								
Total wages, \$1,020,755.64. Ave. No. employed, 1,712. Ave. earnings past year to each person, \$596 23. Ave. day wages to same, \$2.22.								

¹ One establishment run 20 nights—3 hours per night.

Imperfect returns from two establishments give number employed—45 native, 100 foreign—126 men—19 young persons. Hours of labor agreeing with table—wages not given, months in active operation—10.

Extracts from Blanks.

[OFFICE No. 1,510.]

Philosophical Instrument Maker :—

“The most marked difficulty we find in conducting our business is the want of *skilled* workmen; we find few of American birth qualified to do our work, and of such the *decrease* is constant; and we are compelled to employ foreign workmen generally. Formerly we educated young men to our work; we have given up entirely such practice; we find, as a rule, that they are not willing to devote the time necessary to acquire skill, but that before they learn the use of tools, they expect the pay of skilled workmen.”

[OFFICE No. 1,543.]

Vise Company :—

“I find that American boys are more averse to learning mechanical trades, preferring clerkships or some other kind of business that does not soil their fingers; consequently foreign workmen are filling the places that have been filled by Americans. The *very best* and the *very poorest* are now Americans.”

[OFFICE No. 1,911.]

Agricultural Implements :—

“Have had one partial strike: disastrous to the men. All wanted to come back in less than a year at reduced wages. When men strike, pay them and let them go, and fill places with others. Strong drink and excessive use of tobacco is shortening the lives of the men.

“The men employed by us the last five years have shown most plainly that they did not know or appreciate good treatment, and when they were best off they did not know it. The more money they earn the more they will spend and have very little idea of economy.”

[OFFICE No. 911.]

Manufacturers of Cutlery :—

“We formerly required eleven hours labor per day, one hour

more than at present, and find production reduced in proportion. Do not think employés would be benefited by further reduction of time."

[OFFICE No. 1,359.]*

National Armory at Springfield :—

"Formerly worked ten hours. Wages not reduced in consequence of reduction to eight per day.

"Production not as great as under the ten hour system. No further reduction to recommend."

[OFFICE No. 1,427.]

Agricultural Tool Co. :—

"We formerly worked eleven hours in Summer, and as long as we could see in Winter. Prefer ten hours to the old method."

[OFFICE No. 1,543.]

Vise Company :—

"My experience and observation lead me to the conclusion that in shortening the hours of labor not only is the aggregate production of the day diminished, but also the production *per hour*. The common assertion that a man will do as much in a day of eight hours as in one of ten I consider an arrant humbug; he will not do as much in a day of eight hours, as in eight hours of a ten hour day."

DIVISION V.—MACHINERY.

SUBDIVISIONS 3—4—7—8—9—10—12—13.

Almost two-thirds of the employés in this table are Natives. The hours of labor are 59, 60, and 61. Time for dinner one hour, with 3 exceptions of 45 minutes each. The time on Saturday is on an average of one hour; 5 establishments report extra or night work to the total amount of 260 nights, two of them running day and night for a short time.

The number of foreign adults who *cannot read nor write*, reported by *seven* establishments is 36.

The highest wages \$3.25, is paid in pattern-making,—hours of labor 59. The lowest \$1.50 on machinery; hours of labor 61. Time for dinner 45 minutes.

For further particulars of Card Clothing and Sewing Machines see Visits of Bureau.

* See page 249.

TABLE 17.—*Machinery.*

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.				Hours of Labor, per Week.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
65	Boilers and Engines,	14	12	22	4	60	85	50
171	"	11	1	12	-	60	50	33
1,043	"	14	44	53	5	59	50	25
1,356	"	16	3	19	-	60	27	30
1,886	"	14	1	15	-	60	85	70
225	Card Clothing, Machinery,	63	69	132	-	60½	60	33
819	"	16	2	18	-	60	50	-
949	"	50	18	60	8	59¼	74	29
990	"	12	-	10	2	60	100	80
1,097	"	50	30	80	10	59	50	15
1,827	"	197	95	262	30	60	75	50
1,844	"	30	4	34	-	60	75	33
1,916	"	83	30	79	30	60	32	20
2,055	"	59	85	141	3	60	56	38
2,062	"	8	34	42	3	59½	50	25
2,102	"	42	40	77	5	60	60	35
2,081	"	25	16	41	-	60	100	25
2,165	"	17	12	26	3	60	80	-
2,444	"	107	53	140	20	59½	50	10
1,436	Machinists, etc.,	25	15	33	7	60	50	-
1,654	"	33	1	32	2	59	90	50
2,499	"	-	-	66	8	59	62	18
1,723	Needles, Sewing Machine,	35	-	20	10	60	80	50
2,225	Pattens,	19	-	15	4	59	60	30

2,485	Sewing Machines, .	435	215	575	75	650	60	95	60
902	Water Wheels, .	18	-	17	1	18	60	50	-
2,191	Miscellaneous, .	10	36	40	6	46	60	50	50
2,368	"	6	24	29	1	30	59	60	50
2,293	"	15	20	32	3	35	60	75	33
1,378	"	2	12	14	-	14	60	100	-

TABLE 17.—*Machinery*—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per mth.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
65	Boilers and Engines,	\$2 39	\$0 69	12	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$15,116 55	25	\$604 66	\$2 54
171	"	2 25	-	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	6,300 00	10	630 00	2 56
1,043	"	2 25	1 00	12	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	36,339 49	64	567 80	2 01
1,356	"	2 25	-	12	1	13,000 00	24	541 66	1 54
1,886	Card Clothing,	3 00	-	8	2	13,349 00	14	953 50	4 96
225	Machinery,	2 42	-	12	4	44,745 00	74	604 66	2 09
819	"	2 04	-	12	1	7,500 00	17	441 17	1 47
949	"	2 00	92	12	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	32,509 11	61	532 93	1 86
990	"	2 66	1 25	12	2	6,515 00	12	542 91	1 88
1,097	"	2 40	1 00	12	-	45,000 00	70	642 85	2 06
1,827	"	2 62	1 00	12	1	230,000 00	275	836 36	2 78
1,844	"	2 43	-	12	1	20,000 00	30	666 66	2 22
1,916	"	2 27	1 12	12	1	42,025 23	67	627 24	2 09
2,055	"	2 86	1 00	12	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	105,468 71	127	830 46	2 80
2,062	"	2 40	1 00	12	-	19,500 00	20	975 00	3 12
2,102	"	2 00	1 25	12	-	46,615 25	72	647 43	2 07
2,081	"	2 19	-	12	-	20,000 00	41	487 80	1 62
2,165	"	2 46	1 00	12	$\frac{1}{2}$	18,761 00	30	625 36	2 04
2,444	"	2 56	1 20	12	-	80,000 00	100	800 00	2 56
1,436	Machinists, etc.,	2 25	92	12	-	20,195 09	42	480 83	1 54
1,654	"	2 50	1 25	8	1	28,579 98	40	714 49	3 57
2,499	"	2 45	1 18	12	1	54,991 82	72	763 77	2 54
1,723	Needles, Sewing Machine,	3 00	1 50	-	-	24,000 00	35	685 71	-
2,225	Patterns,	3 25	96	12	3	13,000 00	18	722 22	2 61

2,485	Sewing Machines,	\$2 50	\$0 92	12	—	\$474,418 79	645	\$735 53	\$2 35
902	Water Wheels,	2 83	1 00	12	—	17,183 00	18	954 61	3 05
2,191	Miscellaneous,	—	—	12	—	16,000 00	50	326 00	1 02
2,368	“	2 50	—	12	—	15,000 00	22	681 81	2 18
2,293	“	—	—	12	4	19,800 00	30	660 00	2 61
1,378	“	2 75	—	8	3	18,000 00	40	450 00	2 44

NOTE.—The total number of nights which five establishments have run are 260—two running all night—the other three from 3 to 8 hours per night. Number of foreign adults who cannot read nor write are 36.

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native, . . .	1,426	Number of Men, . . .	2,136	Average wages of Men per day, . . .	\$2 41
“ Foreign, . . .	872	“ Young Persons, . . .	240	“ Young Persons per day, . . .	1 06
Nationality Unknown, . . .	87	“ Women, . . .	5	“ hours of labor on Saturday, . . .	9
	—	“ Children, . . .	4		
Total, . . .	2,385	Average hours of labor per week, . . .	60		
		“ time for dinner, 1 hour.			

Number of days in active operation, 295 ; Average lost time from sickness, etc , per year, to each person, 22 days.

Total wages, \$1,503,913.02 ; Av'ge No employed, 2,115 ; Av'ge earnings past year to each person, \$701.12 ; Av'ge day wages to same, \$2.56.

Percentage of employés at work one year ago—66.

“ “ five years ago—37.

From 3 imperfect returns not tabulated the following are given—No. of natives 98, foreign 49—nationality unknown 15—men 115, young persons 47.

Hours and wages agreeing with table.

[OFFICE No. 1,654.]

Manufacturer of Cotton Gins remarks :—

“Our business is conducted differently from most kinds and can hardly be compared with any concern we know. Our concern is a copartnership, and several of the workmen are partners, or owners in the business, having a small interest. They are intelligent men, and most of our workmen are among our substantial citizens and own their places in whole, or in part. Our business varies more than most kinds. Sometimes we have all we can do, or more, at other times scarcely anything. It has been dull with us the last six or eight months. A few of our men have been with us twenty to thirty years. We make very little change in help. When business is brisk those having jobs hire in extra hands, and we employ more day laborers. With such a class of help we have no trouble about prices, hours of labor, &c., &c. When business is good those having jobs frequently make from \$90 to \$125 per month, but when they have only about work enough for themselves, they can make only about day wages. Sometimes when business is dull, the job workmen give their hands part of the work, even when they could do it themselves.”

[OFFICE No. 1,723.]

Manufacturer of Sewing Machine Needles :—

“Our hands refused to work once in consequence of our refusal to discharge one of our employés and substitute one of their choice from outside the factory. Loss of time nearly a week. The leaders in this movement we refused to employ, but have never interfered with their obtaining employment elsewhere.”

[OFFICE No. 1,886.]

A Card Clothing Manufacturer remarks :—

“Card Clothing is used only in Cotton and Woolen Factories, and the demand is limited to their wants. There are in the United States twenty-two manufactories where it is made with an aggregate of 1,300 machines. Seventeen of these manufactories are in

Massachusetts with over 1,100 machines. The capacity of a machine is 1,000 feet per year. Present value \$1.25 per foot; 900,000 feet would now supply all the demand per year. So that 400 machines are now idle.

[OFFICE No. 2,102.]

Machine Co. :—

“Many of our employés own property, have more comfortable homes, live and dress better, and use their means for mental improvement, especially the native born.”

[OFFICE No. 225.]

Machine Co. :—

“We employ three classes of help—Machinists, Moulders and Laborers. Our older hands, that is those in our employ for some time, show increasing desire and determination to better their condition by becoming landholders, investing in the Cotton Mills of the place, and depositing earnings in our several Savings Banks.”

[OFFICE No 1,156.]

Bobbin and Spool Manufacturer :—

“No strikes; but employés in general are more unsteady and more dissatisfied with their wages than before the war at eleven or twelve hours per day.

“French Canadians have taken the place of about one-third of our number within ten years. A Yankee with brains don’t like day labor at present.”

[OFFICE No. 1,376.]

Manufacturer of Steam Boilers and Engines :—

“As our men advance in years they seem to become deeply interested in the affairs of the country. Still more so in sustaining and encouraging the laws of the country, and to promote the interest of the National liabilities.”

[OFFICE No. 1,436.]

Knitting Machine Manufacturer :—

“Should not hire men if I thought they belonged to any labor movement.”

DIVISION VI.—METAL WORK.

SUBDIVISION 4. *Foundries.*

The foreign element predominates in this business. Hours of labor 54 to 66, the average being 59 per week. Time for dinner 1 hour. No. of foreign adults who cannot read nor write in 7 establishments are 94. Minors none. Highest wages \$2.70, is paid in Winchendon—not tabulated. Hours of labor 66. The lowest wages \$1.90, in Lawrence, hours of labor not given. The establishments working 54 hours average \$2.25. This is the first instance of the longest hours giving the highest wages. The total wages for this establishment were not given. The next highest reported are \$2.69,—hours of labor 60 ; 1 cent less per day, and 6 hours less per week.

TABLE 18.—*Metal Work.*

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.					NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.				Hours of Labor, per Week.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
						Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.		One year ago.	Five years ago.
308	Fairhaven,	50	10	52	8	59	77	38
334	Somerset,	130	150	280	-	62½	90	80
668	Salem,	22	16	34	4	-	75	-
789	Lawrence,	3	19	18	4	-	90	50
971	Somerville,	12	13	21	4	60	75	25
1,279	Waltham,	19	111	126	4	60	75	-
1,372	Springfield,	40	20	60	-	60	66	5
1,810	Clinton,	10	9	18	1	54	77	55
1,915	Hopedale,	12	11	20	3	60	40	35
1,995	Otter River,	10	12	22	-	54	100	-
2,067	Worcester,	12	108	95	25	-	85	75
2,132	"	12	18	27	3	60	75	50
2,446	Boston,	25	75	100	-	59	25	-

TABLE 18.—*Metal Work*—Continued.

No. of Blank.	TOWN OR CITY.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per mth.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
308	Fairhaven,	\$2 29	\$1 00	11	1	\$32,980 00	58	\$568 62	\$2 06
334	Somerset,	2 60	-	-	-	116,000 00	280	414 28	-
668	Salem,	2 37	1 03	12	$\frac{1}{2}$	21,263 22	38	559 55	2 07
789	Lawrence,	1 90	80	-	-	7,016 00	25	280 64	-
971	Somerville,	2 12	-	12	2	15,600 00	25	624 00	2 16
1,279	Waltham,	2 48	87	12	-	63,967 31	110	581 52	1 86
1,372	Springfield,	2 68	-	12	-	37,000 00	60	616 66	1 97
1,810	Clinton,	2 21	1 25	12	1	11,427 00	18	634 83	2 11
1,915	Hopedale,	2 05	1 25	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	14,651 00	21	697 66	2 42
1,995	Otter River,	2 25	-	12	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	12,000 00	22	545 45	1 93
2,067	Worcester,	2 62	75	12	5	60,000 00	120	500 00	1 98
2,132	"	2 30	-	12	2	25,000 00	25	1,000 00	3 47
2,446	Boston,	-	-	12	2	46,680 00	75	622 40	2 16

NOTE.—One establishment run six nights—3 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours per night. No. of foreign adults who cannot read nor write—94. One firm gives the highest amount of property owned by a wage laborer as \$5,000.

Totals and Averages to Table No. 18.

Number of Native,	357
“ Foreign,	572
		—
Total,	929
Number of Men,	873
“ Young Persons,	56
Average wages of Men, per day,	\$2 32
“ “ Young Persons,	99
“ hours of labor, per week,	59
Hours of labor on Saturday,	9½
Time for dinner, hours,	1
Number of days in active operation,	309
Average lost time from sickness, etc., per year to each person, days,		22
Total wages,	\$463,584 53
Average number employed,	877
“ earnings past year to each person,	\$528 60
“ day wages, “ “	1 84
Percentage of employés at work one year ago,	71
“ “ “ five years ago,	46

In addition to those tabulated, 3 establishments giving imperfect returns, report number employed 118. Native, 61; Foreign, 57; Men, 108; Young persons, 10. Hours of labor per week in one, 60—another, 66.

Extracts from Blanks.

[OFFICE No. 971.]

Iron Founder:—

“No strikes, or combinations for further advance of wages, have occurred. The Trades’ Unions not being kept up, and assessments paid, the mechanic is not put up to strikes, but if he can do better elsewhere, frequently leaves and goes to other parts for a small increase of wages. The Trades’ Union is not supported by its former members, and I am of opinion, in my line of business, it is not sustained.

“In regard to improvement in the condition of employés under my own observation, I think that more can be said on the reverse. The greatest evil the mechanic and laborer have to encounter, is the use of intoxicating liquors, beer and tobacco. Holidays, the blessed Sabbath itself, are given over to debauchery in many cases. Close up the rum and beer saloons, and I think an improvement may be observed in the condition of many laborers and mechanics at once.”

[OFFICE No. 1,388.]

Iron Wire Manufacturer :—

“A great improvement in temperance and a consequent improvement in their condition; some having small homesteads of their own.”

[OFFICE No. 1,915.]

The Treasurer of an Iron Foundry, says :—

“The writer has worked thirteen hours per day, but never has employed labor over ten.

“Have discharged moulders for insulting and threatening others not belonging to their ‘unions.’ There was a moulders’ union, but our men were satisfied that the cost was more than the benefit, and gave up their charter.” This was two or three years since.

“Think mechanics can live better on their wages to-day, than at any previous time to my knowledge. Their character and social position are probably not equal to what they were formerly, but this is in my opinion due to immigration, and the opening of other opportunities to our native born and common school educated people. For the past two and a half years, we should have done better to have lent our capital at seven per cent. than to carry on our business, or in other words, we have made less than seven per cent. per annum on our capital. We are sure that in our business, and we think in business generally, the employés receive their full and equitable share of the amount produced.”

TABLE 19.—*Miscellaneous Metal Work.*

No. of Blank.	O C C U P A T I O N.	N U M B E R O F P E R S O N S E M P L O Y E D.				H O U R S O F L A B O R.		Time for dinner, minutes.	P E R C E N T A G E O F E M P L O Y E S A T W O R K.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	Total.	Per Week.	Saturday.	One year ago.	Five years ago.
1,331	Gas Machines and Stoves,	30	50	64	16	80	60	10	—	—
2,383	“ “	29	20	47	2	49	60	10	75	50
896	Hardware, etc.,	24	6	25	5	30	60	10	100	50
1,517	“ “	7	18	22	3	25	60	9	87	—
665	Stoves, .	6	5	9	2	11	60	10	100	85
2,124	“ .	10	5	15	—	15	60	10	75	16
2,332	“ .	8	9	17	—	17	60	10	90	75
369	Tacks and Nails,	91	—	37	22	91 ¹	55	5	90	25
605	“ “	3	5	5	3	8	60	—	—	—
1,296	“ “	34	43	63	4	77 ¹	60	10	50	20
1,672	“ “	42	6	28	20	48	60	10	95	75
1,743	“ “	—	—	70	9	79	60	10	90	—
2,536	“ “	47	68	111	4	115	60	10	84	58
128	“ “	55	7	29	12	62 ¹	60 ¹ ₂	8	60	40
142	“ “	9	8	1	2	17 ¹	60	8	95	—
964	Tin and Tin Plate, .	7	6	13	—	13	60	10	100	—

¹ There are 65 women and 12 children included in these totals.

TABLE 19.—Miscellaneous Metal Work—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m'th.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
1,331	Gas Machines and Stoves,	\$2 92	\$0 87	12	1	\$35,452 09	60	\$590 86	\$1 96
2,353	"	2 60	1 00	12	—	33,488 83	49	683 64	2 19
896	Hardware, etc.,	2 64	87	11	1	13,999 00	27	518 48	1 92
1,517	"	1 83	75	10	1	7,000 00	25	280 00	1 12
665	Stoves, .	2 50	1 00	12	$\frac{1}{2}$	10,500 00	13	807 69	2 63
2,124	"	2 15	—	11	6	10,000 00	18	555 55	2 52
2,332	"	2 50	—	12	$\frac{1}{4}$	10,000 00	13	769 23	2 48
309	Tacks and Nails,	3 10	75	12	—	35,190 00	90	391 00	1 25
605	"	3 00	75	11	—	4,000 00	8	500 00	1 74
1,296	"	2 33	1 00	10	—	30,083 83	65	462 82	1 78
1,672	"	2 50	1 00	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	14,000 00	40	350 00	1 10
1,743	"	2 75	1 12	12	—	41,298 00	80	516 22	1 65
2,536	"	2 85	50	12	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	88,415 00	136	650 11	2 62
128	"	2 46	1 18	12	2	27,565 00	53	520 09	1 80
142	"	2 33	1 00	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	4,950 00	17	291 17	95
964	Tin and Tin Plate,	2 25	—	12	—	8,483 88	15	565 59	1 81

NOTE.—One establishment ran 48 nights from three to five hours per night. Number of foreign adults who cannot read nor write is 10; minors, 8.

Totals and Averages to Table No. 19.

Number of Natives,	402
“ Foreign,	256
Nationality Unknown,	79
<hr/>	
Total,	737
Number of Men,	556
“ Young Persons,	104
Average wages of Men, per day,	\$2 54
“ “ Young Persons,	90
“ hours of labor, per week,	59
“ hours on Saturday,	9
Number of days in active operation,	296
Average lost time from sickness, etc., per year to each person, days,	22
Total wages,	\$374,425 63
Average number employed,	709
“ earnings past year to each person,	\$543 56
“ day wages, “ “ “	1 98
Percentage of employés at work one year ago,	85
“ “ “ five years ago,	49

MISCELLANEOUS—Metal Work.

Three imperfect returns give the following: Natives, 34; Foreign, 41; Men, 48; 7 Young Persons. Hours of labor per week are from 59 to 83 $\frac{1}{4}$ —with the average on Saturday as in Table. Percentage of employés in the latter employed one year ago, was 20—five years ago, 13. In the former—90 per cent. were employed one year ago; 50 per cent. five years ago.

In the manufacture of Wire Goods running 83 hours, the average wages of men were \$1.97—In the other \$2.50. No. of nights run in the former 175—average 4 hours per night. No. who cannot read nor write in both, 17.

Extracts from Blanks.

[OFFICE No. 128.]

A Tack Company remarks:—

“Would respectfully suggest that in our opinion the best way to improve the condition of the laboring classes is to educate their children, and for this purpose *we would establish Half-Time schools* in all the cities and larger towns, for all grades up to the High School. The advantages seem to us apparent. The children will not be overworked, but will have some time every day for recreation.

They will, if at work half a day and at school the other half, learn to labor and to respect labor. They will have an opportunity for thorough instruction in mechanics or in some useful occupation, and at the same time may acquire as good an intellectual training as is furnished by the full time system. It is economical. A teacher can take care of more scholars during the day, and the amount of school-room required is much less than under the present arrangement. Our experience leads us to the conclusion, that the present law requiring three months of schooling in the year *is of very little practical importance*, especially in cities where the schools are graded. We think few manufacturers, comparatively, will object to employing two sets of children where they employ one now, and *that if our school committees can see its advantages the Half-Time system can be easily established.*

[OFFICE No. 334.]

Iron Co.:—

“We never interfere with workmen outside of the Mills. There is a Boilers’ and a Puddlers’ Union. We have no business with either.”

DIVISION VII.—VEHICLES.

SUBDIVISIONS 2—5.

The hours of labor are uniformly 60, and time for dinner one hour, with one exception. The highest wages are \$3.30 the lowest \$2.20.

TABLE 20.—Vehicles.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.				HOURS OF LABOR.		Time for dinner, minutes.	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	Total.	Per Week.	Saturday.	One year ago.	Five years ago.
824	Carriage Making,	36	7	24	19	43	60	10	24	5
825	"	19	6	25	-	25	60	9	15	5
838	"	28	-	27	1	28	60	10	95	-
841	"	8	9	17	-	17	60	10	100	77
855	"	20	2	22	-	22	60	10	100	-
1,434	"	5	12	13	4	17	60	10	90	40
2,058	"	16	12	27	3	30 ¹	60	10	75	50
1,800	Wheels, etc.,	18	8	25	1	26	60	9½	83	50

¹ To the column of Foreign and Native, 2 (unknown) should be added to make the total.

TABLE 20.— *Vehicles*—Continued.

No. of Blank.	O C C U P A T I O N .	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per month.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
824	Carriage Making, .	\$2 35	\$1 08	12	11	\$20,000 00	39	\$512 82	\$1 74
825	"	2 00	-	12	11	15,000 00	25	600 00	2 05
838	"	2 69	1 50	12		14,800 00	28	528 57	1 72
841	"	2 50	-	12	2	11,600 00	17	687 05	2 38
855	"	3 30	-	-	-	13,383 79	22	608 35	-
1,434	"	2 75	1 37	-	-	10,000 00	17	588 23	-
2,058	"	2 93	1 25	12	$\frac{1}{2}$	21,586 00	25	863 44	2 82
1,800	Wheels, etc., .	2 26	1 00	11	-	10,829 84	22	492 26	1 72

NOTE.—One establishment ran 28 nights, 2 hours per night, and one foreign adult cannot read nor write.

Totals and Averages.

Number of Native, .	150;	Number of Men, .	180;	Average wages of Men per day,	\$2 59
" Foreign, .	56;	" Young Persons, .	28;	" " Young Persons per day,	1 44
Nationality Unknown, .	2;	Average hours of labor per week, 60;	" " hours on Saturday,	9 $\frac{3}{4}$
Total, .	208.	No. of days in active operation, 307;	Average lost time from sickness, etc., per year to each person, 14 days.			

Percentage of employés at work one year ago, 65; Percentage of employés at work five years ago, 37.

Total wages, \$117,199 63; Av'ge number employed, 195; Av'ge earnings past year to each person, \$601.02; Av'ge day wages to same, \$2.05.

Imperfect returns give number of Natives 28—Foreign 16—Men 34—Young Persons 10—Hours average as in Tables. Wages of men—in one—\$2.30—the other \$2.50—of young persons in each—\$1.00.

DIVISION VIII.—WOOD WORK.

SUBDIVISIONS 1—3—4—5—6—7—8—9—10.

Natives are as two to one. Hours of labor 48, 59, 60, 66, 70. Time for dinner 1 hour with two exceptions of 45 minutes. Adult foreign who cannot read nor write, in 4 establishments, 35. Highest wages \$3.25, in the Lumber business, 60 hours per week. Lowest wages \$1.67, in Wooden Ware, same number of hours.

TABLE 21.—Wood Work.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.					HOURS OF LABOR.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	Total.	Per Week.	On Saturday.
1,926	Boxes, .	13	2	13	2	15	59	9
1,129	Boxes, etc.,	31	6	35	2	37	60	10
1,798	"	10	10	20	-	20	60	9
996	Coopers,	20	5	25	-	25	60	10
1,377	Cork, .	12	-	2	-	12 ¹	59	9
58	Lumber,	8	19	18	9	27	59	9
67	"	20	8	20	8	28	60	10
307	"	8	1	9	2	11 ²	70	10
704	"	8	8	16	-	16	60	10
917	"	19	51	40	24	70 ³	66	11
1,183	"	16	44	60	-	60	66	9½
2,465	"	178	40	212	6	218	60	10
1,484	Pumps,	14	12	26	-	26	60	8½
1,968	Wooden-ware,	14	-	14	-	14	60	11
2,484	Novelty Wood Works,	35	65	94	6	100	60	10

¹ 10 Women.

² Nationality unknown, 2.

³ 6 Children.

TABLE 21.—Wood Work—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.		No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m'th.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year to each person employed.	Average wages to each person employed.
		Men.	Young Persons.						
1,926	Boxes, .	\$2 50	\$1 25	11½	2	\$9,600 00	16	\$600 00	\$2 16
1,129	Boxes, etc., .	2 65	70	12	3½	9,350 00	34	275 00	1 00
1,798	" .	2 45	-	12	-	14,000 00	20	700 00	2 24
996	Coopers, .	2 00	-	-	-	15,000 00	25	600 00	-
1,377	Cork, .	3 00	-	12	2	5,447 68	15	363 17	1 26
58	Lumber, .	1 85	1 50	12	5	8,700 00	25	348 00	1 61
67	" .	2 45	1 37	12	2	13,500 00	26	519 23	1 80
307	" .	1 75	1 75	8	2½	3,300 00	8	412 50	2 19
704	" .	2 30	-	12	1	10,500 00	15	700 00	2 33
917	" .	2 87	2 00	9	1⅞	2,500 00	30	833 33	3 78
1,183	" .	2 42	-	10	-	25,436 00	60	423 93	1 63
2,465	" .	3 25	1 00	12	½	100,000 00	137	729 92	2 35
1,484	Pumps, .	2 10	-	12	3	15,000 00	20	750 00	2 71
1,968	Wooden Ware, .	1 67	-	12	2	6,733 00	14	480 92	1 66
2,484	Novelty Wood Works, .	3 00	1 50	12	2	90,000 00	100	900 00	3 12

NOTE.—Number who cannot read nor write in four establishments—foreign adults, 35.

Totals and Averages to Table No. 21.

Number of Native,	406
“ Foreign,	271
Nationality Unknown,	2
Total,	679
Number of Men,	604
“ Young Persons,	59
“ Women,	10
“ Children,	6
Average wages of Men per day,	\$2 42
“ “ Young Persons per day,	1 37
“ hours of labor per week,	61
“ “ on Saturday,	9
Percentage of employés at work one year ago,	74
“ “ “ five years ago,	35
Number of days in active operation,	295
Average days' lost time from [sickness, etc., per year to each person, in days,	25
Total Wages,	\$329,066 68
Average number employed,	545
“ earnings past year to each person,	\$603 77
“ day wages, “ “	\$2 23

Imperfect returns from 2 establishments—one of Lasts—the other of Matches. The first gives 16 native, 7 foreign, 19 men, 4 young persons. Hours per week 59.

Percentage employés one year ago 90—5 years ago 40. Wages of men \$2.68. In operation 11 months—Averaging 2 days' lost time per month.

The other—12 employés—48 hours per week—8 on Saturday. Percentage employed one year ago was 67—5 years ago 25—Wages not given.

Total wages \$4,000. Average number employed 11—average earnings \$363.62.

Extracts from Blanks.

[OFFICE No. 2,064.]

Last Manufacturer :—

“I am obliged to sublet my work for the reason that good help is scarce. I give a good workman a job on a certain part of the work, and hold him responsible for the quality of the work.

“There is no special improvement in the character of my employés, for the reason that good, reliable American help is hard to get, and am obliged to hire foreigners, and no improvement is possible with that class of help, generally speaking.

“Think the number of workmen who become master employers is *decreasing*, from the fact that so many of our young men who would make good mechanics are *forced* into trade or the professions, by parents and others who hold the mistaken idea that a trade is not as respectable as a profession. When this feeling can be overcome, and good reliable American boys learn trades, good workmen will be more abundant.”

[OFFICE No. 2,465.]

Lumber Dealer remarks :—

“Perhaps the subject of homes for the laboring classes is one on which there is as much diversity of opinion as on almost any subject under discussion at the present time, and it is a subject in which I have taken a great interest for some years, and yet it is one that is more sadly neglected than any of like importance I know of. We have had the Model House System advocated by many good men, and many houses have been built; and I believe there is no one thing productive of more evil than the Model House System. I refer to the poorer class houses. For no ten or twenty families can live under the same roof, all unitedly, from the heads through the children down to the servants, with one vicious man, woman, child, or servant, who can produce sufficient trouble to make life intolerable to a person of refined sentiments. Many a young lady who is the pride of her parents and of the little parish from which she takes her departure, goes to a large city to earn an honest living, and in time finds some active young mechanic who is willing to unite his future with hers. She gets married with hopes as high as the highest. At the proper time an increase of the family makes house-keeping necessary, and only apartments in a Model House can be had within their means. With high hopes that it will be but a short stay, they cheerfully accept the situation. After a few days a *row* between some of the older tenants, opens the eyes, for the first time, of the young and happy couple, to the scenes in life in a *Model Hell*. Then the young wife says: “O let us get out of this wicked place!” but where can they go? Rents for half of a tenement in a decent place, are *three hundred dollars*; too much for young mechanic’s purse, and so in time the once young, hopeful and happy wife, becomes low-spirited, from that discouraged: children are neglected, and grow up in misery with surroundings such as can be had in such places, and I leave it for you and others to say, what kind of citizens we shall raise from such *Hot* beds as these. No. I say, down on such places, and let some of our monied men give their donations to

endow large plats of land, lay them out and build small cottages with from three to five rooms, and let every man have a small garden spot, where the young and happy wife and mother may train up her children for usefulness, instead of allowing them to grow up to inhabit our houses of reformation. The man who will start this great reformation in creating proper Homes for the poor but honest mechanic and laboring man, *will create for himself a monument in the minds and the hearts of the recipients more lasting than stone or iron.* Our strength lies in our production which must be by labor. Then let us elevate our laboring man by giving him a suitable place to spend his time, where his mind will be at rest, and he can enjoy the blessings of a home such as our forefathers enjoyed, even with but two rooms, or even one, which is far preferable to my mind, to three or five rooms in connection with as many families."

DIVISION IX.—MISCELLANEOUS.

This table represents so many different Industries of a diverse nature that no comparison can be made between them.

The Highest wages are paid in the manufacture of Trunks \$2.75. The lowest in Shooks—\$1.80—65 hours per week.

TABLE 22.—Miscellaneous.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.					HOURS OF LABOR.		PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES AT WORK.	
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Total.	HOURS OF LABOR.		Five years ago.
								Per Week.	Saturday.	
1,474	Broom-makers,	3	17	12	2	6	20	60	10	35
2,218	Carpet sweepers,	10	—	8	2	—	10	60	10	—
289	Coffin trimmings,	8	1	6	1	2	9	59	9	—
147	Crucibles,	8	10	17	1	—	18	54	9	63
1,195	Fixed Ammunition,	36	4	22	14	4	40	59	9	—
1,792	Flocks,	4	16	17	2	1	20	66	9	—
1,169	Hair Felt,	3	4	7	—	—	7	64½	9½	—
1,206	Twine and Loom Harnesses,	30	1	5	26	—	31	66	9½	14
145	Stove Linings,	16	2	15	—	3	18	60	10	—
146	“	45	15	54	—	6	60	60	8½	50
2,445	Shooks,	5	20	25	—	—	25	65	10	20
1,997	Toys,	17	6	14	—	6	23½	60	10	33
987	Steam Packing,	39	4	15	13	15	43	60	8½	—
1,696	Trunks,	14	1	15	2	15	32½	60	10	—
1,351	Paper Boxes,	26	4	4	26	—	30	59	9	—
1,355	“	31	—	3	10	18	31	60	10	—
1,324	Paper Collars,	26	10	7	26	3	36	60	9	14

¹ Three children should also be added.

² Seventeen in the total are not designated as Native or Foreign.

TABLE 22.—Miscellaneous—Continued.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			No. of months in active operation.	Days' time lost from sickness, etc., per m'th.	Total wages the past year.	Average number employed.	Average earnings the past year, to each person employed.	Average of day wages, to each person employed.
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.						
1,474	Broom-makers,	\$2 00	\$0 75	\$0 50	12	-	\$8,800 00	20	\$440 00	\$1 41
2,218	Carpet sweepers,	2 25	1 25	-	12	11½	5,300 00	10	530 00	3 04
289	Coffin trimmings,	2 00	1 20	90	11	1½	4,518 00	10	451 80	1 74
147	Crucibles,	2 12	1 20	-	12	-	14,761 69	18	820 09	2 62
1,195	Fixed Ammunition,	2 50	90	75	-	-	13,997 23	38	368 34	-
1,792	Flocks,	2 06	1 00	1 00	12	3½	14,000 00	20	700 00	2 59
1,169	Hair Felt,	2 00	-	-	11	-	3,600 00	7	514 28	1 79
1,206	Twine and Loom Harness,	2 25	1 10	-	11¾	2½	9,870 00	22	448 63	1 66
145	Stove Linings,	2 36	-	1 00	-	-	12,148 64	18	674 92	-
146	"	2 23	-	1 00	12	-	25,000 00	55	454 54	1 45
2,445	Shooks,	1 80	-	-	12	-	14,000 00	25	560 00	1 79
1,997	Toys,	2 00	-	-	12	-	10,000 00	20	500 00	1 66
987	Steam Packing,	2 72	1 50	1 25	12	1	19,500 00	39	500 00	1 60
1,696	Trunks,	2 75	1 00	1 25	11	-	7,200 00	14	514 28	2 22
1,351	Paper Boxes,	2 35	1 25	-	12	5	9,000 00	25	360 00	1 15
1,355	"	2 25	1 25	1 50	12	2	5,500 00	23	239 13	83
1,324	Paper Collars,	2 70	1 50	1 00	12	-	7,910 15	25	316 40	1 01

NOTE.—Two establishments report running 36 nights—three and two hours per night. Number who cannot read nor write is eight foreign adults and two minors. One establishment reports a wage laborer as owning \$7,000.

Totals and Averages to Table No. 22.

Number of Native,	321
“ Foreign,	115
Nationality unknown,	17
	—
Total,	453
Number of Men,	246
“ Women,	125
“ Young Persons,	79
“ Children,	3
Average wages of Men, per day,	\$2 25
“ “ Women,	1 15
“ “ Young Persons,	98
“ hours of labor, per week,	61
“ hours on Saturday,	9
Number of days in active operation,	307
Average lost time from sickness, etc., per year, to each person,	
in days,	45
Total wages,	\$185,105 71
Average number employed,	389
“ earnings, per year, to each person,	\$475 85
“ day wages, “ “	1 81
Percentage of employes at work one year ago,	67
“ “ “ five years ago,	33

One incomplete return in a Whip establishment gives whole number employed—235. Natives 112. Foreign 38—Unknown 85—Men 57—Women 28—young persons 150. Hours per week 59. Wages of men \$2.25. Women \$1.00.

HOURS OF LABOR.

Blank Number 6.

Blank number 6 was specially arranged to procure statistics of wages, cost and amount of production, percentage or waste, etc., under the long and short time systems, and was sent, as before stated, to parties answering affirmatively, Question 11 on blank No. 5.

The great interest manifested by employers, and especially by the manufacturers of Textile Fabrics, in opposition to a reduction of the hours of labor, would naturally lead us to infer that they would readily answer the questions propounded, especially as they have continually claimed that production would be diminished and wages reduced, by any reduction of

the working time. In this we were disappointed. An examination of the several questions will show, that answers to each and all of them, would exhibit the advantage or disadvantage of the two systems.

The following is the form of the Blank :—

	Former system.	Present. system.
1. Hours of labor per week,
2. Number of years so running,
3. Average speed of machinery,
4. Average number of persons employed,
5. Average percentage of men,
6. Average percentage of women,
7. Average percentage of young persons,
8. Average percentage of children,
9. Total product in quantity,
10. Total product in value,
11. Total payment in wages,
12. Average wages of men (<i>actual</i> , not estimated),
13. Average wages of women (<i>actual</i> , not estimated),
14. Average wages of young persons (<i>actual</i> , not estimated),
15. Average wages of children (<i>actual</i> , not estimated),
16. Average percentage of improved or new machinery introduced,
17. Total cost for repairs,
18. Total percentage of waste,
19. Total cost of heating,
20. Total cost of lighting,
21. Total amount paid in salaries,
22. Total cost of production per pound, yard, or other unit of measure,
23. Give quality of the goods,
24. Average lost time to each person employed (holidays and stoppage of machinery not included),
25. Total lost time to the establishment, from stoppage of machinery, from all causes,

The only complete return to this Blank was received from Easthampton, and was as follows :—

[OFFICE No. 24.]

A Rubber Thread Company report as formerly running 66 hours per week, now running 60 hours. Number of men employed in former system 68 ; young persons 20 ; children 12. Number of men now employed, 50 ; young persons, 30 ; children 20.

Total annual product in quantity is 26,502 lbs. greater.

“ “ “ value is \$45,660 greater.

Total payment in wages is \$4,512 18 greater.

Average wages of men per day is 2 cents greater.

“ “ of young persons per day is 1 cent greater.

“ “ of children per day 3 cents greater.

Percentage of waste 50 per cent. less.

Total cost of lighting \$144.85 less.

Amount paid in salaries, \$1,300 less.

Cost of production 2 pr. cent greater ; better quality of goods.

So that a reduction of about 9 per cent. of working time resulted in an increased quantity and value of the goods produced, an increase in wages paid, together with decreased waste, cost of lighting and amount paid in salaries, the cost of production being but 2 per cent. greater, which would seem to be more than compensated in the better quality, increased quantity and value of the goods.

Other returns were received from which we gather the following statements :—

[OFFICE No. 10.]

Novelty Wood Works :—

“I have worked years on the twelve hour system, but I think ten hours quite long enough for a man to do a good day's work, and none too long. Twelve hours I consider too long, and no advantage to the employer. A man working ten hours per day comes to his work fresh in the morning, works his ten hours and returns to his home in good spirits. If he has twelve hours to work, he comes before breakfast, works a short time, then breakfasts, works till dinner, dines, and works again till night comes ; he is then tired, and *low spirited*, goes home, sups and then to bed, to return next morning to the same course ; with no ambition but to *put through* the day.”

[OFFICE No. 13.]

Lumber Dealer and Builder :—

“Commencing business in 1844, I have been in Boston through all the various changes of hours of working, first from sunrise to sunset, then from six o'clock until sunset, after that from six o'clock until seven, then from seven to seven, and the last change was to the present system from seven to six, which, to my mind, is about right. When men talk about a man's doing as much in eight as in

ten hours, I can only say that is not so, by actual experience. I do not think there is the same interest taken by men, generally, in the affairs of the employers, as formerly; and I ascribe it to the teachings of a class of men who are continually telling the men that they are doing too much, that they ought to do less and have more. Many, too many, follow such teachings, and to their own disadvantage. What men want *is to be taught to rely upon themselves*, and not upon a set of men who make it a business to get their living out of honest and hard-working men, and then pay them with false teachings. Every man in this country should be taught that he is to stand upon his own feet; that the field of advancement is open to him, as well as to any one else; that fortune seeks those who seek it; that he who sits down or spends his time in talking of his hardships, while he could easily remedy them by going to work, will never have his expectations realized. This shortening of time is used to good advantage by many, but disadvantageously by more. Many habits, unknown when I commenced business, have crept in since, all of which are *bad* for the workmen, some of which I will name. Continuous smoking at their work, a pernicious habit, one I have never allowed in my own gangs, as yet, and know I am benefiting the men in many ways by refusing to allow it. Another is drinking before going to work, during the day, and going from the work,—which is the case in too many instances, and anything that can be done to break up the last habit, will be of greater good to the working people of this country, than all the Labor Reform associations that ever existed.”

The hours of labor in this establishment were formerly 66; are now 60. Run 8 years on the longer system and 18 years on the present. Average wages of men were from \$2.00 to \$2.50;—are now from \$3.00 to \$3.50.

[OFFICE No. 14.]

A Rigger replies that his business is such that many of the questions asked do not apply, but gives, as his former system, 72 hours of labor per week, while the present is 54. The average wages were \$1.75, are now \$3.50.

[OFFICE No. 16.]

A Chair Manufacturer makes the following statement:—

“Years previous to 1866 and 1867, we ran on the ten hour system, and paid by the hour. The nature of our business was, and is, such

that we considered it best never to light up our factories; therefore we never worked by artificial light. But to equalize the time and obtain three hundred and thirteen (313) working days in the year, we ran eleven hours in the summer season, say from April 1st to Oct. 1st, and then, as the days grew shorter, took what daylight we could get. In the shortest day, this was about eight and three-quarter hours. As in the winter season labor is more plenty, we found not much difficulty in procuring all the men we wanted, and because we gave constant work, we were enabled to hire low, and make a contract that the employés should work for a year. Those we consider the good old times, when the employés continued in one place, year after year, and appeared contented. But a change appeared to come over help, and we found it difficult to pursue the same course. When Summer came, the help would insist that we should not run the eleven hours, though it was all right and nothing said, as long as they worked eight and three-quarter hours. Finding that the odd hour in the day was itself the profit to our business, some means had to be devised to help us out of the predicament into which we were constantly being drawn. We do not wish to have it understood, that our help were imperative in their demands, but friendly in the expression of their wishes. We took the matter under advisement and finally decided to call all the time, between the whistle-call in the morning and the closing at night, A DAY, and hired accordingly. To our old hands, (and we have some now who have been with us from ten to twenty years), we said that we expected as much work from them in the winter day as the summer, and they did not disappoint us. Now to speak of the results after four years' experience; we work now not over ten hours, and when daylight will not admit of this, we work all we can. We think we obtain as much work in the winter months as in the summer, for the reason that *they all feel more like it*. And we think that we obtain as much work now in the ten hours of summer day that we run, as we used to in eleven, many years ago. Our candid opinion is, (the Superintendent is now speaking for himself), that ten hours in the twenty-four is as much as a person should labor, and it is as much as we care to labor ourselves, and which we do every day. We have studied over the problem whether the laboring man would be benefited by a further reduction of the hours of labor, and cannot see why or wherefore he could; and from our experience of fourteen years with our own help, and knowing them perhaps more intimately than some manufacturers are in the habit of knowing their employés, we feel safe in saying, that, if they had more time to themselves, it would not be improved in the manner that most of

our labor reform agitators claim that it would. We say nothing in a financial view of the case, for that might regulate itself: if the production were less, of course it would cost more to manufacture." Most of those employed by the companies are able to work diligently ten hours per day; the product of the eleventh hour in my opinion is not one-twentieth. With those of slender constitution, we should see a marked improvement in short hours. I think those desiring culture would improve the hours, while for those of vicious habits I can see no advantage. I have ever been an advocate of ten hours per day; think it would be better if it could be brought about by mutual consent or public sentiment, rather than legal enactments. Almost all who are able to work at all, could work ten hours per day at such work as they are adapted for. Do not think a reduction of wages would necessarily follow a reduction of hours. In some branches of industry there would be a slight falling off in the production, but it would not be lasting. The production now in eleven hours is as much as it was formerly in twelve and a half or thirteen. This is due in part to improved machinery, perhaps. Improvements are still going on in that direction, and the same results would be reached by a still further reduction. I think one hour should be allowed for meals, *especially dinner*. Work should be suspended on Saturday at such an hour as would enable every one to wash, and do such shopping or marketing as would prepare them for the observance of the Sabbath."

[OFFICE NO. 19.]

Hardware Manufacturer :—

"My experience in the number of hours has been as follows: till four years past I ran my factory eleven hours per day. Previous to running ten hours I could keep my men at work and be sure they would be at work daily. Soon after I adopted ten hours, my men began to be tardy in the morning, and now, at this time, it is a great deal of trouble to keep them at work. They have more time to lounge about places of amusement as they term it, but you will find their places of amusement mean rum-shops, and in my opinion *if the people had less time for amusement there would be less dissipation and less crime*. I believe that we are having too many holidays, too much time for the good of the whole. I should be glad to see the mechanic have all the rights that belong to him, but I believe *that too much leisure is a detriment to his welfare*."

[OFFICE No. 20.]

A Shoe Manufacturer writes as follows :—

“Our experience of the *eleven* hour system was previous to the war, when the rates of wages were so very different from the present that it would be hard to form a comparison. For instance, we are now paying for ten hours labor, \$2.50 per day, while prior to '61, we were paying \$1.25 to \$1.50 for eleven hours in the same department. Still further: much of our work is now ‘piece work’—and men will do more work in *ten hours* as piece help, than formerly in eleven hours, when at work by the day. The same men that to-day work ten hours and earn from \$3.00 to \$4.50 per day by the piece, were formerly at work by the day of eleven hours, at prices varying from \$1.50 to \$1.75 per day. Any very material change of the length of a recognized day of labor, as, for instance, from ten to eight hours, would in our judgment, result in a change to ‘piece-work’ instead of ‘day-labor.’ The workmen, as well as the manufacturer, in our opinion, would desire this. Most of our men prefer to make ‘longer days’ and have more pay. Even now we have men who desire to work in excess of ten hours, but they are ‘piece-hands.’ We do not really believe that any manufacturer would expect to make a change to eight hours and have the same amount of work performed by the same number of men, as when they labored two additional hours.”

[OFFICE No. 23.]

American Twist Drill Company :—

“The character of our work has been such that hitherto we have not been able to reduce it to the perfect system that we are desirous of reaching. Consequently, we can give no exact information about the *quantity* of work produced. We *can* say, however, that *our productions have been increased since reducing the hours of labor.* From close observation and practical experience as a workman, the writer can say that, we can, without much trouble, enforce, under less time, the regulation that *requires every man to attend closely to his work during the entire day, from the fact that the men do not get exhausted.* This prevents idleness, and, consequently, discontent and uneasiness. We think a still less number of hours would be a gain instead of a loss in the quantity of work performed. For instance, run ten hours every day but Saturday, on this day run seven or eight, thus give time for recreation, business and rest. These remarks will not, of course, apply to lazy or dissipated workmen,

because, as a general thing, they would be worthless if they were only required to labor five hours per day." [This Company formerly ran 66 hours,—now runs 61 hours a week.]

[OFFICE, No. 26.]

Cotton Warp Manufacturer :—

"The amount of work done in our business depends upon the length of time the *machinery* is kept running, and while in favor of the ten hour system for Cotton Manufactories, our experience has demonstrated that more can be produced by keeping the machinery in motion twelve hours than eleven."

[OFFICE No. 2.]

"The best answer I can give is, that we run our Mills at faster speed now, than we formerly did—say 20 turns to the minute, formerly 110, now 125 to 130. We used to pay our help less per day in 1860, say \$1.12, now \$1.50, for same kind of work, but still it cost more per pound to make goods in 1860 than now. We drive harder on the ten hour plan, and get off more pounds per day. I think there are so many holidays now, that, taking out lost time and all, we don't make out more than five full days in Summer and probably about the same in Winter.

"As to the number of hours hands should be employed, it is very important to know the kind of work they do: for instance, I think in all Batting Mills and the like—Rope-walks, Wadding and Plaster mills,—where there is much dust, eight hours is all that should be required, but the help could not live on what we could afford to pay them for that number of hours. I don't think men should work in this kind of work but a few years. Outside workmen can work ten or eleven hours with good, clear air, and not be injured in health. I don't think men are so willing to work as formerly, and I find it harder to control them, or else I am not so well qualified as formerly. Perhaps I am somewhat at fault. We drive them pretty hard. Hoping this will suit your wishes &c."

This company report as having formerly run 66 hours per week, are now running 60; employ about the same number of persons. Wages of the men have increased on the average about 47 cents a day, and of women 49 cents. There is 15 per cent. less waste; amount paid in salaries is \$900 greater than formerly, with decreased cost of production of 18 per cent. Average lost time to each person employed is four-fifths greater.

It will be seen from the foregoing, that *six* of these respondents are in favor of 10 hours ; *two* give no opinion, and only *one* is opposed. The improved condition of the men, the fact of the same productions, or, as in Office Nos. 2 and 23, of an increased production, are the facts in favor of the past reductions, though they may not hold good with a reduction to a lower figure. Yet the Twist Drill Manufacturer thinks a still less number of hours would be a gain instead of a loss. The experience of the Chair Manufacturer shows the instinctive opposition to long hours. The zeal of the men in producing as much in the shorter time, is a remarkable exhibition of conscience such as few people, whether workingmen or traders, are capable of, and yet the respondent thinks that such men, some of whom have been with him 10 or 20 years, would not improve the added leisure.

The statement and figures presented by the Superintendent of a Batting Company are conclusive as to the reduction from 11 to 10. None of the evils so often prophesied with each succeeding reduction of working time, have come to pass. On the contrary, in this case reduced hours have been succeeded by an increase of thirty per cent. in wages, a decrease of 15 per cent. waste, and 18 per cent. in cost.

The idea that decreased time, or more leisure to the men, means so much more dissipation, idleness and riot, cannot be sustained, we believe, by any casuistry of reason, in the face of the facts developed by the influence of the shortening of time by the "Ten-Hour" law of England—upon English operatives. So far as our reading and inquiry go, the testimony is wholly in the direction of improvement in moral habits and in general culture.

To these returns we also append, in this place, the extracts from General Wage Blank No. 5, and Working-Men's Blank No. 9.

Extracts from Blank No. 5.

[OFFICE No. 901.]

Chair Manufacturer : —

"Think ten hours is better than eight or twelve for both employer and employed ; it is a good medium."

[OFFICE No. 1,025.]

Parlor Organ Manufacturer :—

“ We think as much labor is performed by the workmen in ten hours as under a longer system, and that employer and employed are benefited by the ten hour system.”

[OFFICE No. 2,106.]

Organ Reed Company :—

“ Have always made a full day's time of ten hours, except in hurrying times, when we have worked some on evenings. Ten hours seem in our estimation as long as a man ought to work unless upon special occasions ; in fact, we regard it as the most proper length of time for a day.”

[OFFICE No. 1,285.]

Planing Mill :—

“ We work ten hours a day ; have worked more. A man will do more work according to the number of hours worked.”

[OFFICE No. 1,344.]

Button Manufacturer :—

“ Think the ten hour system is satisfactory to all our employés.”

[OFFICE No. 237.]

Roll Coverer :—

Thinks ten hours preferable.

[OFFICE No. 311.]

Gun Maker :—

“ Ten hours per day is satisfactory to our workmen.”

[OFFICE No. 2,038.]

Iron Foundry :—

“ Think the hours of labor should not be reduced below ten hours per day. Think a reduction to eight would seriously damage my business, if not ruin it, and would not be any real advantage to my workmen, but rather a damage in both money and comfort. I have for several years paid my workmen by the hour ; and I find they are

more inclined to increase the hours of labor and consequently the amount of pay, than to decrease the hours to the detriment of their pockets.”

[OFFICE No. 896.]

Manufacturer of Hardware for Children's Carriages:—

“We require our men to be in the factory ten hours per day, and consider that right for a day's work. The men who work over time are job hands, and get their pay as such.”

[OFFICE No. 825.]

A Carriage Manufacturer:—

“Men will do more work in a year working ten hours a day than working more.”

[OFFICE No. 1,434.]

Carriage Manufacturer:—

“We are in favor of the ten hour system. Have worked on the twelve hour system, but think it is over-taxing help.”

[OFFICE No. 838.]

Manufacturer of Carriage Wheels:—

“Consider that more work can be accomplished by working ten hours per day, the year round, than by working more hours. Consider a further reduction of time destructive to workman and employer.”

[OFFICE No. 1,741.]

Batting Co:—

“We can do better on ten hours than longer; persons get so tired that the *last* hour's work is not attended to properly.”

[OFFICE No. 1,793.]

Cotton Warps:—

“Have had experience running more than eleven hours—our present time; and as the machinery will produce more if kept in motion sixteen hours, more has been accomplished on the long hour system. Should prefer to run ten hours, if other parties in the same line of business did not run eleven.”

[OFFICE No. 512.]

A Woolen Co., running Mill sixty-five hours per week, say :—

“We have had no experience in a longer working day. We should have no objections to ten hours if it was a United States Law.”

[OFFICE No. 871.]

Flannel Manufacturer :—

“We never have worked under any other system than the present; we think that ten hours per day is a fair day’s work, and would run only ten hours if other manufacturers would. (Now running eleven hours.) We think that a further reduction would give more time for improving the mind, and also prove beneficial to the health.”

[OFFICE No. 1,481.]

Rubber Thread Manufacturer :—

“Formerly worked eleven hours. Now ten with apparently the same result.”

[OFFICE No. 1,492.]

Sewing Silk Co :—

“Have worked twelve per day, then eleven hours, now ten. In a part of the work we do not see any difference in the amount of product; but in spinning, the longer the time, the larger will be the amount produced.”

[OFFICE No. 191.]

Boot and Shoe Manufacturer :—

“I have been an employer of men for forty-six years under the old sunrise to sunset principle, and under the ten hour system. I think for the good of both employer and employed, the ten hour system the best.”

[OFFICE No. 1,313.]

Shoe Manufacturer, running ten hours a day, says :—

“Our men earn more than they did when they worked twelve to fourteen hours. They live better and dress better than formerly.”

[OFFICE No. 1,573.]

Boot Manufacturer :—

“Think a day’s work cannot be done in less than ten hours, and would prefer that to a longer day. Work myself twelve or thirteen, two or three being out of doors.”

[OFFICE No. 1,836.]

Boot Manufacturer :—

“Never employed any one to work over ten hours ; but those who work by the piece, work on an average about twelve hours a day, and earn from \$18 to \$25 a week, when they work. *They are always out of money.* Those that work twelve hours a day, are those that work only about half of the time. As a general thing, they are the best workmen, but are dissipated, and I think it is getting more so every year. I think if the Crispins would all agree to work ten hours, and let every one work at the business who wished to, they would all better their condition. I don’t mean they would get more money ; I should want them to get less and make a better use of it. Most of that class boast that they can earn enough in one week to support them two weeks, and it is so.”

[OFFICE No. 2,015.]

Shoe Manufacturer :—

“Formerly we employed our help for eleven hours. We see no material difference in the condition of our workmen under the ten hour system. We are able to produce about the same quantity of goods now as formerly. Formerly much of our work was done by the workmen at their homes, and now a large part is done upon our premises.”

[OFFICE No. 535.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“If it could be general throughout the country, would approve of the ten hour system of labor.”

[OFFICE No. 665.]

Manufacturer of Furnaces and Stoves :—

“Employés under the ten hour law will earn as much as if they worked more hours ; will produce as much, as profitably. Condition better. Should not advocate further reduction.”

[OFFICE No. 1,795.]

A Machine Company says :—

“Can accomplish more in ten hours than formerly when running eleven.”

[OFFICE No. 492.]

A Ship-Builder says :—

“Have had experience under a longer working day, but can accomplish more now in ten hours. Do not think any further reduction would be advisable.”

[OFFICE No. 2,144]

A Rigger, working nine hours a day, says :—

“Accomplished more when men worked ten hours and received less pay. I believe a reduction of the hours and an increase of pay has made the laborer more independent and less ambitious. The effect has been to increase the cost of production, which to my business is very damaging, as our carrying trade is done largely by foreign vessels. They can be built for nearly 50 per cent. less, and can make more money than our vessels. The whole trouble is with labor.”

[OFFICE No. 599.]

Carpenter and Builder :—

“Formerly worked from sun to sun. We think the present system of ten hours per day, upon the whole, to be about the best.”

[OFFICE No. 1,942.]

Sash and Blind Manufacturer :—

“We worked, some twelve years ago, one hour per day more, and paid the same per day after the deduction of time. Work performed nearly the same as before.”

[OFFICE No. 55.]

Card Leather Tanners :—

“Now work ten hours per day, and our men are tolerably well suited with the time and work. But years ago, when we worked eleven hours per day, our men were better satisfied and found less

fault. Think at the present it is necessary to fix the time at ten hours, on account of the agitation on the subject of labor, and consider this medium ground. Less than this will not answer for our business."

[OFFICE No. 1,108.]

Leather Manufacturer:—

"Formerly worked nominally about eleven hours; adapted our work voluntarily, several years ago, to ten hours; this is satisfactory all round: further reduction would be disastrous both to the employer and employed."

[OFFICE No. 1,696.]

Trunk Wood Manufacturer:—

"Ten hours per day of faithful work is enough, and no thinking, working man should desire less time, as wages would be reduced accordingly as the result."

[OFFICE No. 2,051.]

Marble Worker:—

"In an experience of forty years, both as proprietor, overseer, and journeyman mechanic, I will say *emphatically* that ten hours is as short a time as I should wish to work, and is as little, with the competition we have in New England, as men can work and earn a living."

[OFFICE No. 1,340.]

A Printing Company replies:—

"We have never had a longer working day than ten hours. No further reduction in time should ever be made without a corresponding reduction in wages. We pay for ten hours work, we get about eight hours. If the time was reduced to eight hours, we should get about six hours of labor."

[OFFICE No. 334.]

Iron Company:—

"The reduction of the hours of labor shows corresponding reduction in production, and would so continue."

[OFFICE No. 971.]

Iron Founder:—

"Am of opinion ten hours per day of labor by no means excessive; that less than that is so much lost, or not produced, to the

mechanic himself; that legislation on the subject is not wanted, the laws of trade, supply and demand, doing the business. A farmer or mechanic at work for himself is no advocate of ten, eight, or six hours, but works 'while the day lasts' and is not injured thereby."

[OFFICE No. 1,296.]

Horse Shoe Nail Co. :—

"Never have worked longer or shorter time; think if we worked less time, many of our men would spend more time in dissipation."

[OFFICE No. 2,055.]

Machine Co. :—

"Have worked ten hours for the last fifteen years. Before that, worked eleven hours. Do not get more labor per hour now than when we ran eleven hours. Think it would not be for the interest of employers or employes to work less than ten hours."

[OFFICE No. 65.]

Manufacturer of Boilers, Engines, etc. :—

"We worked our men eleven hours per day—until Oct. '63. The product was lessened about the time taken off—that is about one-eleventh."

[OFFICE No. 1,156.]

Bobbin and Spool Manufacturer :—

"We have had experience on all the working time here, viz., twelve and three-quarters, eleven and ten, the last our present working time for six years past. The law of supply and demand has had its usual effect;—only varied of late years in amount, by the higher cost of living. We have found no difference in the cost of labor per day, whether it be for ten, eleven, or twelve hours. Nor have we found any material difference in the amount of labor done per hour. Are quite sure we get about $\frac{1}{11}$ less now than when the hours were eleven. Saturday, however, was always made a shorter day—say one and a half hours when working eleven hours. Competition is very active in our business and profits are low. The condition of employes of the skilled class, we should say has improved. Some are prudent and are having houses of their own. As for a further reduction in the hours of labor, we don't think it is called for in this vicinity. Aside from the Corporations, a day's work is ten

hours, and that is entirely satisfactory as far as we know. We think in the mass, there is a common-sense feeling that any further lessening of production must tell somewhere, and that it might touch the laborers as well as employers. This produces content with things as they are."

[OFFICE No. 1,206.]

Manufacturer of Loom Harnesses :—

"Except under an increase of speed, the short time has reduced wages, production and profits; a further reduction of time will have the same effect. No visible change in condition of operatives."

[OFFICE No. 1,436.]

Knitting Machine Manufacturer :—

"Have worked under all systems of labor from fourteen hours to ten per day, and am convinced that fourteen is too much and that ten is too short for profit to the manufacturers. Help do *not* strive to do as good day's work in ten hours as they did in eleven. Think eleven hours about the right number to work for all concerned. Wages are much higher now than under the old system."

[OFFICE No. 1,827.]

Machine Co. :—

"The less number of hours a man works, the less he wants to work, and the less production is there per hour."

[OFFICE No. 128.]

Tack Co. :—

"We oppose any legislation in regard to the hours of labor, as being inconsistent with free institutions and detrimental to the interests of a free government."

[OFFICE No. 1,517.]

Hardware Manufacturer remarks :—

"In regard to the hours of labor, my experience has been, and my opinion is, that mechanics, as a whole, would be better off if they were obliged to be at their business twelve hours per day; but I would not recommend that number of hours, but would recommend eleven hours per day. People talk about mechanics not

having time to improve themselves intellectually! They do not use their spare hours in that way. You will find more of them in bar-rooms than in libraries, and you will find mechanics keeping bar-rooms now, who twenty years ago would have been considered loafers, and been shunned by respectable men of their class. In establishments that run eleven and twelve hours per day, there is less trouble with the help."

[OFFICE No. 1,376.]

Paint and Chemical Co. :—

"Our men work ten hours per day, and we are not in favor of a reduction of the hours of labor, either for our own interests, or the good of our employés."

[OFFICE No. 1,195.]

Cartridge Co. :—

"We think long days beneficial to employer and employed."

[OFFICE No. 1,037.]

Flint Glass Manufacturer :—

"Under the ten hour system, not more than nine hours work is obtained. A shorter day would be ruinous. I am of opinion that, as a rule, most laborers and unskilled mechanics would be better off with eleven than ten hours work."

[OFFICE No. 1,051.]

Granite Worker remarks :—

"We think the whole system of regulating the hours of labor, is injurious to the laboring classes. The laborer has his capital (which is his labor) to invest. Let all labor be computed by the hour. If I choose to work ten hours and my neighbor wishes to work but eight hours, let each receive pay accordingly."

[OFFICE No. 1,811.]

Granite Quarry :—

"Formerly worked thirteen and also eleven hours until 1862. Now work ten. Thirty years' experience has convinced us that when our men worked eleven hours per day, they were in as good condition as at present."

[OFFICE No. 1,816.]

Granite Worker :—

“Have worked eleven hours when labor was abundant. Our experience is with common laborers, *that the less wages are paid, the more sober and industrious are the laborers*. Few of them save or use wisely their surplus earnings. Men never worked so irregularly as now, though on the highest wages.”

[OFFICE No. 1,538.]

Boot Manufacturer :—

“My help all work by the piece, and work as many or as few hours per day as they choose, occupy as much or as little time at meals as they wish.”

[OFFICE No. 2,198.]

Cheap Jewelry and Metal Work Manufactory :—

“At times under great demand for goods, we *request* a few of our hands to work evenings on such parts of the work as are behindhand. We use no compulsion in the matter. All our hands work by the hour, and a reduction of time consequently reduces wages.”

[OFFICE No. 2,428.]

Finishing Leather :—

“Do not accomplish as much as formerly with longer hours. Wages \$2 a week higher. Men are not as good, as a class, as formerly.”

[OFFICE No. 1,387.]

Paper Co. running from forty-two to seventy-two hours per week says :—

“All our laborers appear satisfied with our present working hours. No complaints.”

[OFFICE No. 671.]

Manufacturer of Bagging :—

“Have employed help to work thirteen hours per day. Found them much more efficient and intelligent than those now employed at eleven hours. Were more regular and lost less time.”

[OFFICE No. 1,870.]

Cotton Mill :—

“We work sixty-six hours per week, and think this, as well as a longer time formerly run, and better than a shorter time would be.”

[OFFICE No. 32.]

Manufacturer of Print Cloths :—

“When we run thirteen hours, labor cost somewhat less than it does now. Since we adopted eleven hours, the earnings of the operatives have increased in consequence of speeding up machinery. Production about the same. Profits less. Condition of employes not materially changed. A further reduction in working hours would be disastrous to our business, without a corresponding reduction in wages.”

[OFFICE No. 818.]

Manufacturer of Print Cloths :—

“Have worked sixty-six hours weekly, and see no material difference between that time and sixty-four and a half hours—in condition of employes. Our experience is that every decrease in working hours, increases cost of production.”

[OFFICE No. 914.]

Warp Manufacturer :—

“We have tried longer and shorter time, and think that eleven hours per day is about the suitable time. We have to compete with Warp Manufacturers in other States who run twelve hours or more per day. Any great reduction from our present number of hours, would probably drive us out of the business.”

[OFFICE No. 1,209.]

Cotton Mill :—

“Have for eighteen years run eleven hours per day; before 1853 ran a longer time. The amount of wages earned is larger; the quality of help has deteriorated—many more being foreigners. The profits are, owing to various causes, equal to those made under longer hours. The condition of the operatives is as good as formerly.”

[OFFICE No. 1,441.]

Cotton Company :—

“I think that the condition of the majority of the employes would be made worse, instead of better, by shortening the hours of labor.”

[OFFICE No. 957.]

Carpet Co. :—

“Under any given circumstances and within reasonable limits, rates of wages will be in proportion to time employed. Have failed to observe moral or physical improvement as a result of reduction in working time, and believe a further reduction would be unwise. Production is in proportion to time.”

[OFFICE No. 951.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“Shorter time would not be to the interest of Mill employés, or of production.”

[OFFICE No. 1,190.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“We think that a further reduction of the hours of labor would be injurious to the manufacturing interests of the State.”

[OFFICE No. 1,272.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“We have worked fourteen hours, years ago; are now working eleven hours, and think the latter the best for all concerned, but do not think a further reduction would be advantageous to either employer or employed.

“Employés are now more intelligent, better clothed, better fed, more healthy, less intemperate, and more inclined to be steady and well to do people.”

[OFFICE No. 1,386.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“Our opinion is that until employés—especially foreigners—are better fitted by education to a proper improvement of their time, less hours for labor would be no advantage to them.”

[OFFICE No. 1,703.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“Have always worked on the plan of sixty-six hours per week, giving the hands time to attend a good deal to their own comfort. Have offered the hands the ten hour system—*steady work*—but they preferred the eleven hour as better for them in all respects.”

He further remarks :

“I have been engaged as workman since 1826, say 45 years. At that time, woolen mills were worked fourteen hours a day, and the wages were about \$1.25 a day for skilled workmen, and about 50 cents a day for females. Board was then \$2.00 a week. All employers, both in cotton and woolen, *then kept retail stores where workmen traded, and there was no regular pay day.* The workmen, both men and women, were mostly Americans. Scarcely a foreigner was then employed. In 1871, no mills, woolen or cotton, ran over eleven hours per day and wages were from \$2.00 to \$4.00 for skilled workmen and \$1.50 to \$2.50 for females. Board is now \$4.00 a week. All mills now pay the hands with cash every month. The workmen, both men and women, are now almost exclusively foreign. Such have been the improvements in labor-saving machinery in the last forty-five years, that it now only requires one-third the number of laborers to make a given quantity of goods that it then required. I cannot call to mind a single article of machinery now used in Woolen Mills, that was in use forty-five years ago, excepting the old-fashioned fulling stocks which have been in use for 150 years with very little alteration. A very large proportion of these improvements have been invented by Americans, and first brought into practical use by American Manufacturers.”

[OFFICE No. 1,770.]

Woolen Co :—

“I think eleven hours are about right ; and can be run to better advantage than more hours per day. The hands take more interest in their work.”

[OFFICE No. 71.]

Manufacturer of Woolen Goods :—

“We have worked formerly equal to twelve hours per day, and now work eleven hours. Consider it no hardship on our employés, as dyehouse men and all at hard labor, do not really average over ten hours per day in summer and nine in winter. The laborers all round get better pay and lay up more money than formerly, not owing to hours of work, but to scarcity of labor and consequent advance in pay.”

[OFFICE No. 91.]

Manufacturer of Cassimeres says :—

“We have (elsewhere) run longer, also shorter, time than at present, which is eleven hours. This we consider as near right as we can get.”

[OFFICE No. 117.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“Employés do not generally accumulate much means under reduced hours of labor. They have more time to recreate and spend their earnings. Liable to contract idle and vicious habits.”

[OFFICE No. 126.]

Woolen Manufacturer :—

“Make the hours less and the production will be less, most assuredly, every time.”

[OFFICE No. 917.]

Saw Mill :—

“Usually work eleven hours. Think it should be eleven for eight months, nine for four months.”

[OFFICE No. 1,183.]

Lumber and Saw Mill :—

“A reduction of the hours of labor would be detrimental to our business, as we now have to compete with Eastern and Provincial manufacturers where they work much longer each day.”

[OFFICE No. 146.]

Fire Brick and Stove Linings Manufacturer says :—

“The employés want more pay, and there is more loafing soon after a reduction of the hours of labor.”

[OFFICE No. 1,771.]

Woolen Co. :—

“I consider eleven hours a fair day's labor for any man or woman. Don't see as employés are any more healthy or are benefited by less time.”

[OFFICE No. 1,887.]

Woolen Manufacturer remarks :—

“I have employed help for a considerable length of time under

long and short hours of labor ; do not think any number of persons in this vicinity desire shorter time than is worked at present, from the fact that all persons in my employ are anxious to work all the overtime possible. Nearly all persons employed by me are accumulating property, and desire to earn and save all they can, and I am convinced their greatest desire is *to be let alone*.

“ I have in my employ a family who five years ago were paupers, kept by town aid, who now have \$4,000 in Savings Bank. I employ in this State, Connecticut and Rhode Island, some five hundred persons,—running twenty-five sets of machinery ; and never knew a time when help was so scarce, or so well paid as at present.”

[OFFICE No. 1,968.]

Wooden Ware Manufacturer :—

“ I have carried on the same business over thirty years. For many years I worked my help twelve hours. I think I got $\frac{1}{11}$ th more work done than I do now working eleven hours and help were as well satisfied as they are now. My opinion is that out-door labor ten hours, and inside labor eleven hours, is better for both parties. If eight hours were adopted I think there would be no more work done per hour than now.”

Of the 72 respondents quoted, 35 are in favor of the 10 hour system and 30 are opposed ; 7 expressing no opinion.

The testimony of those who have adopted the shorter time, is almost unanimous in its favor. Many report an improved condition of the employés. No instance is given of decreased wages, though many report an increase, not only in wages, but in production. All of the arguments against reduction made by those working eleven hours and over, are answered by those who have adopted the shorter time, and worked under that system for years. The advocates of eleven hours have utterly failed to sustain themselves in their continued adhesion to a system that England outgrew 22 years ago ; a system unworthy of our State and Nation, and one that would not last a month if the victims of it were men instead of women and children, as most of them are.

In contrast with the preceding, we give the following extracts from Workingmen's Blank, No. 9 :—

STATEMENTS BY WORKINGMEN.

[OFFICE No. 117.]

A Machinist :—

“The hours of Labor are too long. Those who work the hardest and longest, get the least pay, as a general rule. This is the worst feature of long hours. Their effect upon health, culture, etc., is anything but good; but the great fact to be first mentioned, is, that long hours mean low wages; and low wages mean the poverty of the masses and the large profits made one way and another on their labor, or its results, by the rich who are growing richer as fast as labor-saving machinery increases. More blessings will follow a reduction of hours, than from any measure that can be proposed. The fate of modern civilization, will, in my opinion, turn upon this single issue. Men accept piece-work because they expect to make more than at day-work. Employers consent to job out their work, because *they* hope to make more. It is as fair to suppose that intelligence wins here, as anywhere else. Piece-work lowers the price of day wages in the long run.

“Accidents are largely the result of ignorance and heedlessness. Anything that tends to increase the intelligence and tact of the masses, will best prevent accidents. Reduce the hours of labor and knowledge will increase.”

[OFFICE No. 153.]

Machinist :—

“The longer the hours the less the pay and the less I can buy with my money for want of time to look about. I could not stand it now to work twelve and a half or thirteen hours as I used to when young, as I get so tired now in ten hours that I can't put my mind to hard work. I think that all parties interested would be better off if the hours were shortened still more. I am a strong Eight-Hour man. I know that workingmen do not average more than ten months' work in a year, and although I do not pretend to say that a man can do as much work in eight hours as he can in ten, yet with new and improved machinery and methods of doing work it will be but a short time before a workman will be expected to turn out more work in eight hours than he does now in ten. When I went to my trade, and for a few years after, I worked from twelve and a half to thirteen hours per day: now I work ten but I know that I turn off more work in a day now than I did then. A Machinist to turn off good work must always have his mind, and his attention on his work, and after working a short time

there are but very few of them who are not too tired, when they get their day's work done, to sit down to anything that is going to be a strain on perceptive or reasoning faculties. And I suppose that it is the same with most other trades."

[OFFICE No. 193.]

Overseer in a Weaving Room. This writer gives his experience in Factory labor since eight years of age, both in this country and in England. In relation to the hours of labor he says:—

"My experience in this direction is as follows: First, as to wages; I am supported by the most available data, when I state that weavers are earning more to-day in this country and in England, than they were when I was a boy in the weaving room, and when they worked twelve and thirteen hours per day. I think there is less sickness, with better habits. Short hours would not help them *right off*, but in the course of a decade we should see the effects of it. Such is my firm conviction based upon observation and experience. They are more intelligent now than twenty years ago, and I think the same rule would hold in twenty years from now in a greater degree, if the hours were shortened to give them greater opportunities. It has long been my firm conviction that something is required to check the downward career of the laborer in America, and I believe that nothing will so effectually do it as shortening the hours of labor by legal enactments. Physically, socially, morally and in a religious point of view, working men will be benefited by shorter hours. Temperance will receive, perhaps not at first, but eventually, a mighty addition to its ranks; and I believe I am speaking the honest convictions of most of the manufacturers of New England, when I say that some legal enactment that would reduce the hours of labor to, say nine, or perhaps ten, as those are the hours most generally desired, and, of course, see that it was enforced by the appointment of inspectors, thus keeping competition where it is now confined, to local and general circumstances, would be, by them, very readily accepted. For they, and we all, believe, that upon the virtue and purity, to say nothing of the worldly condition of the masses, which makes them pure and virtuous, rests the security of our institutions. The ashes of buried antiquity will tell this plainer than I can ever expect to do, but I will cry now and always, until I see the State of Massachusetts adopt some means to elevate her toilers and give honor, by protection, to the producers of her wealth."

“There are some children here and in other mills hereabouts, who do not receive the lawful amount of schooling and are kept at work by their parents the whole year. *They work eleven hours per day, without their schooling.*”

[OFFICE No. 48.]

A Shoemaker :—

“My experience among workmen has been, that long hours of toil wholly unfits a man for enjoyment or converse with his fellows, or to spend an hour to talk or entertain his children, and make home agreeable; generally too tired to answer Johnny or Mary a question. He is not a suitable subject to have charge of a family. He feels tired, and too often really cross, by overwork. But if he rises in the morning refreshed, he feels like work, and like making those around him happy.”

[OFFICE No. 19.]

Machinist :—

“I have worked most of the time for more than seventeen years for my present employer, who runs his wheel eleven hours. During this time he has generally I think, been able to hire for about the average price per day of shops in this vicinity that run ten hours. But I am satisfied that he has made nothing by his extra hour, for many of his best workmen have been hired when business was dull in neighboring towns, and they would submit to the long day intending all the time to leave just as soon as business was brisk where they came from, and so when he needed them the most, they were off. Then he has been obliged, much of the time, to hire inferior workmen, those who may call themselves first-class, but who, to get the pay of such, have to take second-class jobs. The prevailing feeling among his men towards him is similar to that generally entertained towards a farmer or trader who always asks a little more than a fair price, for everything he offers for sale. And this feeling crops out almost every day as opportunity offers in shirking, with the remark, ‘I must get my hour somehow.’ The apprentices feel that he ‘gouges’ an hour out of them, and act accordingly, and this too in face of the fact, that in many respects, he is a good man to work for. At present, a few of us, who have been here several years, work by the hour, for a price that would be satisfactory if he run but ten hours, and are not obliged to work a longer day than we please; so personally we have nothing to complain of, but it is impossible to be blind to the fact that the majority of the hands brood over this thing as a personal wrong, and it tells against their faithfulness.

“My own experience convinces me that ten hours is as long as a man can work constantly and faithfully, without detriment to his health, and his continuance at work. As regards reducing below that, I do think that labor-saving machines, which are being so multiplied in these days, ought to benefit the masses by enabling them to earn, what is needful for their support, in less time, and so giving more time for mental improvement and out-door air. But I am not certain that anything can be done by legislating. I am more and more convinced that what the young mechanic needs to do, above anything else, is to see the importance of not putting himself in any man's power by spending every cent as fast as he earns it, until his family is so large that he cannot help it, and of so improving the time he *now* has from his work, that that all-powerful agent, public opinion, will help him to more leisure. In short, I think *perhaps* eight hours will sometime be found to be a good standard for a day's work; and I believe that every mechanic who is trying to lead a *useful* life, is doing something towards shortening the work day, if it can be with benefit, *and every thoughtless young 'jour' who has no higher ambition than to get the most 'good time' and 'tobacco juice' out of the least exertion, is doing all he can to keep down the workingman, no matter how much he may curse the bosses.* Employers are selfish so are employes, but as a rule employers *think* and employes *won't think*, hence the former are apt to control the latter.”

The following information upon the practical working of the Eight Hour Law, is from a reliable working man:—

[OFFICE, No. 1.]

“Three workingmen, resident within a short distance of each other, who have come under my observation, represent as many classes into which Labor tends, under the influence of a reduction of hours.

“The one of whom I shall speak first, applied the leisure which he acquired, to a deliberate examination of the question of Finance, reaching, in eight months time, by reading several authors, and by comparing their arguments with each other, and with a mercantile experience which had been gained before learning his trade, clear ideas upon this most interesting collateral to the great debate between Labor and Capital.

“This inquiry would have been impossible under any other considerations. The winter months give, it is true, to the out-door workman, a long evening for intellectual culture, but their duration

is so brief, and is necessarily so crowded with varied calls because it is the only season which permits sufficient time for such calls, that it is useless to attempt anything except desultory, or fragmentary effort.

“It is one of the most marked benefits of the Eight Hour reduction, that leisure is gained in the morning, as well as at night. In the present case, the workman’s home was within twenty minutes of his place of employment ; his hour of rising in summer, half-past five, giving, after all ordinary duties were attended to, from a half, to three-quarters of an hour, for investigation, carried on under the advantage of freedom from fatigue, an easement in the direction of careful inquiry, which those only can appreciate, who have endeavored to control restless nerves, and exhausted bodies, in evening studies.

“The next illustration which I shall cite, is that of a workman, with a large family, pressed for means to meet his expenses, who, this season, has made in the course of five or six weeks, an addition of some thirty-five dollars to his income, by shingling the house in which he lived, working morning and evening, doing the whole of the labor himself. I name this as an indication incident of the course, in the use of time, to which his circumstances compel him.

“Lastly, a case presents itself to me, which I could wish had fewer parallels, yet in view of all the hopeful conditions moving upon large numbers of the working classes, I must protest against the instance being taken as a conclusive answer to the question, How will Labor improve leisure? If the reader could have entered this home one morning last summer, he would have seen the father engaged in reading the first disastrous incidents of the present European war to his family ; he would have overheard a remark of sympathetic commiseration over the cares of the French Emperor, followed by an exclamation of surprise from a six-year-old boy that ‘an Emperor could be unhappy.’ The parent might have been heard explaining the mutations of human experience with tender interest to the little fellow, and then going forth to labor, but with such an infirm purpose, that he took so much liquor on the way as to compel his immediate return homewards.

“Passing on to the broader conditions, under which reductions of working time are transpiring, I remark, that the developments as yet, are under circumstances so narrow, as to obscure the benefit which may be confidently predicted when the reduction becomes general.

“Three trades in Boston have been in possession of the Eight Hour Day for twenty years. Their use of time, in one respect, is indis-

putable. There exists among them a marked tendency of residence away from thickly populated localities, accompanied with ownership of the home. If the student of Social Science will take the pains to read Rev. E. E. Hale's 'Sybaris,' he will find this tendency honored by an exposition such as only genius and culture, can give to impulses, which in their popular form excite distrust and opposition.

"The adoption by the Government of the Eight Hour standard, has been burdened by the extension of time a half hour each day for the purpose of calling the roll, and also by the drawback of frequent changes of those employed by discharges, so that but few men have had an opportunity to adapt these habits, and customs, permanently to the shortened time.

"As these hindrances are removed by gradual adoption of the idea of reduction, I see no reason to doubt the practicability of an extension within a few decades, of our city populations, by the aid of cheap steam railway trains, over a space of two or three diameters larger than at present, with the elevating concomitants of Garden Homes, to which the profit and adornment of Horticulture, and Floriculture, shall add their advantages: This will give occasion, and afford opportunity, for our children, under a Half-Time system of schooling, to contribute toward their own support, besides maturing sound constitutions.

"These benefits need not be confined to metropolitan neighborhoods. Several great manufacturing interests which are distributed throughout the State, do not find a market for more than they can produce in six or eight months. The prosperity of families, and to a large extent of communities, depends upon continuous employment. None of his exposures are more constantly and painfully present to the workman, than the precarious tenure of his livelihood in this respect.

"No assumption of culture is more grievously offensive, than the oft-repeated one, that there is employment for all that are willing to labor.

"I urge the Eight Hour reduction, because I see that all the demands of society, in the production of our great staples, can be met by a shorter day of labor, and large classes of industry still be left with time for developing in and about their own homes, those industrial enterprises which will contribute toward their support, their culture, and their happiness.

"If it be objected that this is not leisure, then I say that the element of intelligent labor which presents this idea, has been misunderstood. We ask for relief from Hours of Labor, which use up in

the service of others, the whole day, leaving us no time to comply with the public duties which we are having thrust upon us, or for the exercise of any personal gifts or longings for refined pleasures.

“Permit me in closing to refer you to the accompanying statement of the introduction of the reform in Australia, with the assurance that the same hopeful tendencies in connection with our public libraries, and manifold other influences, are plainly visible among our people, but are held in waiting for the vitalizing influences of a shorter day of labor.

“In Sydney, the stone masons, an organized body of workingmen, commenced the earnest agitation of reducing the hours of labor to eight per day in the middle of 1858, a period corresponding with our winter as to season, for the seasons are reversed there in relation to ours. They commenced agitating it in their own body, so as to make it a trade custom, and succeeded. The agitation, commencing with them, spread so as to influence the other trades engaged in the erection of buildings, as carpenters, joiners, painters, and bricklayers. With this addition of sentiment on the subject, these also secured their object before the close of 1858. The men supposing, of course, that employers and contractors would object to a reduction of two hours per day, while paying the same wages per day, resolved that this should not interfere with their point. In order that contractors should be placed in no embarrassment about their contracts, they would work but eight hours per day, and ask but eight hours pay at the ten hour rate. In less than one year, the wages per day had risen to at least the former price, without collision or trouble. Contractors lost nothing, the workingmen gained an immense advantage.

“The iron trades employed in the Australasian Steamship Company’s Works agitated the same point with the company, but found them strongly opposed to making the change from ten to eight hours per day. The men insisted, giving up, as in the building trades, two-tenths of the day’s pay. After a period of trial, the company found the system to work so well, and secure so much saving of gas and oil, and other items of expense, that they have become strong advocates of it. Accordingly they have since consented to pay the old wages, the same as for a ten-hour day. The manner in which they work the eight-hour day is, in winter, by going to work at seven in the morning, an hour for breakfast between half-past eight and half-past nine in the morning, an hour for dinner between one and two o’clock in the afternoon, leaving work at five in the evening. In the summer work is begun at six in the

morning and ended at four in the afternoon, the hours for meals occurring at the same hours.

“It was urged and expected that the drinking houses in Sydney would be longer filled, and, of course, better supported, and heavy drinking strongly prevail there. *It was not so;* but mark what did take place, consequent upon giving the workmen two hours more per day they could call their own. The School of Art, in which mechanical and free hand drawing, together with modeling, painting and designing were taught, *had to double the size of its rooms.* Hundreds of mechanics, before ignorant of the art of drawing, now mastered it and carried it into their daily work; *work was more artistically and intelligently executed.* It is impossible to state in words the additional and almost immediate growth of character and progress consequent upon this step, nor can we estimate the great good done for posterity in the British colony. To show how aggressive and progressive a good example is, the same gentleman showed an advertisement of a steamship line to New Zealand, in one of the late London weeklies, stating that the eight-hour system is the only one in New Zealand.”

An attempt was made to obtain further information in relation to the working of the Eight Hour system in Australia, but nothing has as yet been received.

We have seen a paper containing a statement in regard to its success, and also the picture of a procession of the Trades in celebration of the event.

The National Eight Hour Law has been generally enforced in Massachusetts, the exception being work on the Forts in the Harbor. How the quarry-work upon the stone for the Boston Post Office is performed, we have not learned.

As will be seen in the extract from office No. 1, the workmen in the Navy Yard do not get the whole of the time granted by Congress, the roll being called at the expense of labor instead of the Government.

In order to present all the facts of the case we forwarded a copy of Blank No. 6 to the Springfield Armory, supposing that the officers of the United States Government would furnish the results of the experiment that the people might have the advantage of a knowledge of its success or failure. We have not received any information from this source. The New York Tribune makes the following statements in its editorial column.

They are worthy of careful attention, as the writer quotes from the reports of officers in the different Departments:—

“When the eight-hour law took effect, the superintendent reduced the wages of the workmen to correspond with the shortening of the working day. On an appeal to the President, this curtailment of wages was overruled. The laborers for day-wages now apply to Congress for payment of the difference between the wages they were allowed by the superintendent and those they now receive, and are likely to obtain it. Among the documents on which they base their claim is one from the commandant of the Armory, who, with reference to the file-workers in that establishment, says:

“They have managed to make, under the old tariff of wages, quite as much per day under the eight-hour as under the ten-hour system; while I believe that the day-workmen have worked harder and more faithfully under the eight-hour than under the ten-hour system.

“The foreman of the milling department reports, (Aug. 17, 1868), that the average earnings of twelve of his piece-workmen under the ten-hour system in the month of June previous was \$2.60; while in July, under the eight-hour, they earned \$2.88 per day. In other words, they did considerably more work for the government in a day of eight hours than in one wherein they worked ten hours. This is a very important fact, worth more to the cause of short hours than three balloons-full of denunciation of capitalists or whining over the miseries of the 'aboring class.

“Nor does this fact stand alone. The foreman of the water shops reports that the average earnings of twenty-three piece-workmen in his department, which, under the ten-hour rule, was \$3.12, under the eight-hour system was \$3.13 per day. From statistics obtained from the workmen, we learn that the piece-price of the work alluded to in the report has been reduced over nine per cent.

“The average earnings of twenty-nine piece-workmen, (so the foreman reports), in the filing department were, under the ten-hour system, \$2.95, and under the eight, \$2.82 per day. We are informed that the workmen in this shop gradually become able to earn in eight hours their usual wages when they worked ten hours, and even more; so that the officers were able to reduce the piece-price from 16 to 17 per cent.

“These statistics—and we see nothing to impeach their accuracy or fairness—are of great interest and value. It seems to be demon-

strated that the reduction from ten to eight of the hours of daily labor in the Springfield Armory, has nowise diminished the efficiency or product of the average day's work, but rather increased it. In other words, the workmen accomplish rather *more*, in the average, when working but eight hours per day, than they did while working ten hours. And, while the piece-workmen doubtless made special efforts to secure this effort, their officers testify that those working in the same shops for day-wages have been equally alert and effective, since the reduction of the hours, with the workers paid by the piece. We have been favored with transcripts from the official returns of the labor performed in the Armory, which fully sustain this averment.

"Of course, one swallow makes no abiding summer. It may be that there are other facts that conflict with and neutralize those above set forth. If there be such, we shall give them place whenever they shall have reached us. Thus far, however, we have no offset to the pay-rolls of the Springfield Armory and the official statements of its officers; and they certainly present the eight-hour system in a fairer light than that in which employers have generally regarded it."

Since going to press, the Hon. George F. Hoar of this State, has offered the following resolution of inquiry:—

"*Resolved*, That the secretary of war be requested to furnish the House, as early as may be practicable, the following information in regard to the United States armory at Springfield:—

"*First*. The number of Springfield breach-loading rifle muskets manufactured, and the actual cost of labor of the same, for each of the following years: 1867, 1868, 1869, 1870 and 1871.

"*Second*. The number of Enfield muskets repaired, and the actual cost of labor on the same, exclusive of new parts, in the quarters ending July 1, 1868, and April 1, 1871.

"*Third*. Copies of the reports of the foremen made in August and September, 1868, relative to the working of the eight and ten hour systems.

"*Fourth*. The names of the piece jobs upon which the foremen's reports were founded, and the tariff on the same in June, 1868, and as it now stands on the books in 1872.

"*Fifth*. The amount and cost of gas and coal used in the quarters ending January 1, 1868 and 1869.

“*Sixth.* Was the number of foremen, assistant-foremen, clerks, messengers, inspectors, or day workmen increased when the eight hour law went into effect? If so, please state the per cent. as compared with the number of piece workmen employed at that period.”

Whatever the result of such investigation may be, one fact is proven, and that alone is worth more than any additional cost from the decreased working time, and that fact is, that wages have not been reduced. It may be true that the President's Proclamation prevented this reduction, but the reason for the President's action, was that the working people would not consent to a reduction of pay.

*Blank No. 8. Cost of Living.**

To procure the average cost of living of a Workingman's family, we prepared the following blank, and addressed written copies to responsible parties with whom we were in correspondence, asking them to procure the details of some wage laborer or laborers, who could present vouchers for the items. This task was a very difficult one, as but few families keep an accurate account of the items of the cost of living, the general answer being, “we have tried, but became discouraged. It costs all we earn.”

In our personal investigation into this subject, after being referred to some industrious, prudent, temperate workmen, we found the almost universal answer—“we have paid out all we have received, and are in debt.” We have examined the Grocery and Provision books of many, very few with whom we have come personally in contact, having any objection. Men have brought their books and bills to us to corroborate their previous statement, that there are many prudent, industrious, temperate workingmen in debt.

The gentlemen who have assisted us in this, comprising as they do, Clergymen, Employers, and Merchants, bear us out in our statements.

The questions comprised in this Blank are as follows—

1.—Name of Town or City.

2.—Occupation of Father; of Mother (if at work for wages); of Children—

* See Purchasing power of Wages.

- 3.—Wages of Father ; of Mother ; of Children.
- 4.—Age of Father ; of Mother ; of Children.
- 5.—Nationality of Parents.
- 6.—No. in Family.
- 7.—Cost of Groceries, Provisions, Clothing, Rent, Fuel, Light, Furniture, Newspapers and Periodicals, Education, Sickness, Recreation and Travel, Charity, Religion, Societies, Sundries, Total.
- 8.—Amount of the following articles consumed in one year by the same family :—Number barrels Flour, gals. Molasses, lbs. Corn Meal, Tea, Coffee, Sugar, Soap, Starch, Butter, Cheese, Lard, Rice, Fish,—salt and fresh,—Poultry, Beef, roasting pieces, soup pieces, steak and corned pieces, Veal, Mutton, Pork,—fresh and salt,—Ham, qts. Beans, Milk, bushs. Potatoes, doz. Eggs, tons of Coal, ft. of Wood.

The totals and averages of the following Table will be found under “Purchasing power of Wages,” Part III.

In this computation No. 1, a Laster, and No. 6, a Clerk, are omitted, because, in the first instance, \$720 of the income is not the result of wage-labor, and the Clerk, is not a wage-laborer. We give them in the tables to show the contrast in the cost of living.

We now present the result of these investigations.

TABLE 1.—*Cost of Living, Wages, Earnings, etc.*

No. of Blank.	COUNTY.	Occupation of Father.	Wages, per day.	Yearly earnings.	AGE OF PARENTS.		AGE OF CHILDREN.		Nationality.	No. in Family.
					Father.	Mother.	Oldest.	Youngest.		
1	Essex,	Laster, .	\$2 10	\$1,385 49 ¹	41	39	17	7 ⁶	English, .	10 ²
2 ³	"	Shoemaker, .	2 00	616 00	25	23	4	1	American, .	4
3	Hampden,	Whip-maker, .	2 50	770 00	47	39	18	11	Irish, .	5
4	"	Laborer, .	1 89	583 44	44	38	9	3 ⁶	"	7
5	"	Iron Moulder, .	3 50	1,078 00	40	-	14	-	American, .	4
6	Middlesex,	Clerk, .	5 00	1,540 00 ⁴	34	30	11	2	"	7
7	"	Printer, .	3 20	985 60	35	31	12	3	"	5
8	Norfolk,	Carriage-smith,	3 00	924 00	34	38	10	-	"	3
9 ⁵	Suffolk,	Carpenter,	3 17	822 00	33	23	3	16 ⁶	"	4
10	"	Ship Joiner, .	3 25	-	47	41	-	-	"	2

¹ Earnings of boy, \$364. and of girl, \$50, for boarder, \$150, State Aid, \$132, and pension, \$24; are included in the earnings of the father. In regard to the item of religion, he wishes to explain that he can seldom wear clothes good enough to make him welcome in a church, except, in some sort, as an object of charity, in a free seat. Is now in debt \$78 93. A correspondent writes, that this man he knows to be industrious and frugal, and an active member of several temperance societies.

² This includes one boarder.

³ In regard to going to church, this man feels that workingmen are not much wanted there, unless they subscribe liberally to the funds; he can't afford that, and don't like to be looked down upon—thinks he surely would be in any church if he did not pay his share of all expenses. Is somewhat in debt—not much.

⁴ Earned something from extra work.

⁵ The individual represented by this return gives his total earnings, with two months' lost time, as \$822.

⁶ Months.

TABLE 1.—Cost of Living—Continued. (Yearly expenditures for articles named.)

No. of Blank.	COUNTY.	Groceries.	Provisions.	Clothing.	Rent.	Fuel.	Light.	Furniture.	Newspapers, etc.
1	Essex, .	\$272 02	\$374 40	\$100 00	\$150 00	\$69 00	\$13 00	\$75 00	\$14 00
2	"	200 00	75 00	75 00	150 00	55 00	5 00	20 00	18 00
3 ¹	Hampden,	177 00	348 00	75 00	86 00	39 00	15 00	10 00*	18 00*
4	"	40 56	298 80	46 44	100 00	47 50	4 80	-	3 84
5	"	311 65	180 50	109 25	150 00	60 00	10 00	71 00	35 00
6	Middlesex,	396 00	380 28	223 00	300 00	79 00	23 00	60 00	19 60
7	"	193 23	139 46	147 00	225 00	51 65	13 29	19 73	12 34
8	Norfolk,	202 84	50 00	50 00	120 00	53 00	2 25	-	13 00
9	Suffolk,	195 00	150 00	75 00	216 00	54 00	10 00	5 00	10 00
10	"	145 75 ³	160 79 ³	178 14	-	34 75	-	33 44	68 41

¹ As this return was given for only four months, the estimates are multiplied by three, with the necessary exception of those marked *, which are unchanged from the original.

² Lobsters, 39 lbs.; Clams, 10 qts.; Oysters, 13 pints.

³ Vegetables, \$11.55; Fruits, \$19.36.

TABLE 1.—Cost of Living—Continued. (Yearly expenditures for articles named.)

No. of Blank.	COUNTY.	Education.	Sickness.	Recreation and Travel.	Charity.	Religion.	Societies.	Sundries.	Total.
1	Essex,	\$10 00	\$20 00	\$10 00	\$15 00	-	\$15 00	\$25 00	\$1,462 42
2	"	-	20 00	10 00	5 00	-	10 00	50 00	693 00
3	Hampden,	9 00	5 00	10 00*	-	-	6 00	60 00	858 00
4	"	10 10	20 00	-	5 00	\$20 00	-	12 00	609 04
5	"	-	100 00	20 00	24 00	24 00	16 00	90 00	1,201 40
6	Middlesex,	11 00	23 00	75 00	-	5 00	31 00	342 63 ¹	1,968 48
7	"	9 63	-	67 93 ²	-	-	17 00	176 90 ³	1,073 16
8	Norfolk,	-	-	25 00	5 00	13 50	-	50 00	584 59
9	Suffolk,	-	40 00	28 00	-	5 00	-	132 00 ⁴	875 00
10	"	-	-	-	-	44 24	-	-	-

¹ Includes kitchen help and rides.

² The larger part of this sum was incurred in taking his family into the country during a necessary suspension of work—not on account of sickness.

³ This sum includes \$5 for insurance, and several back bills—such as medical attendance, \$97.66; furniture, \$20; groceries, \$30, and a few other smaller ones.

He says: "I am now in debt \$73 for groceries and provisions, and some few other things to the amount of \$19.71.

⁴ Hired help and ice are included. Have been married four years and have not yet been able to get through a winter without running behind fifty dollars or more. Cannot lay up a dollar. As soon as there seems to be a chance there comes sickness, with doctor's bills, &c., which swallow up all. Strictly temperate, nothing wasted, spend no money foolishly, and none for amusement.

TABLE 1.—Cost of Living—Continued. (Quantities consumed.)

No. of Blank.	COUNTRY.	Beans, qts.	Milk, qts.	Eggs, doz.	Potatoes, bush.	Roast Beef, lbs.	Soup Beef, lbs.	Beefsteak, lbs.	Corned Beef, lbs.	Veal, lbs.	Mutton, lbs.	Fresh Pork, lbs.	Salt Pork, lbs.	Ham, lbs.	Coal, tons.	Wood, feet.
1	Essex, .	104	360	50	36	200	200	150	250	25	100	150	150	50	6	16
2	" .	18	225	36	12	36	12	144	24	36	48	100	52	60	4	12
3	Hampden, .	48	360	30	12	180	240	300	36	60	18	18	9	60	3	36
4	" .	12	180	24	18	120	-	96	144	-	-	18	144	48	2	24
5	" .	12	200	80	15	200 ¹	-	-	-	-	20	50	200	75	5	8
6	Middlesex, .	52	772	36	9	50	114	112	160	-	270	89	28	17	6	7
7	" .	27	365	30	4	23	59	139	97	28	216	25	70	34	4	8
8	Norfolk, .	26	183	31	4	40	20	100	50	40	-	32	30	50	1½	32
9	Suffolk, .	52	720	15	5	-	70	104	120	15	240	192	52	50	4	16
10	" .	20	125	41	3	-	42	57	80	22	37	- ²	28	80	3½	4

¹ Includes all kinds of Beef.

² Liver, 18 pounds; tripe, 19 pounds; pork scraps, 13 pounds; sausages, 2 pounds.

TABLE 1.—*Cost of Living—Concluded.* (Quantities consumed.)

No. of Blank.	COUNTY.	Flour, bbls.	Molasses, gals.	Corn Meal, lbs.	Tea, lbs.	Coffee, lbs.	Sugar, lbs.	Soap, lbs.	Starch, lbs.	Butter, lbs.	Cheese, lbs.	Lard, lbs.	Rice, lbs.	Fresh Fish, lbs.	Salt Fish, lbs.	Poultry, lbs.
1	Essex, .	9	24	—	25	4	400	150	16	208	100	200	15	150	100	12
2	" .	3	10	6	6	12	116	52	26	104	24	104	6	104	24	50
3	Hampden, .	6	24	150	24	24	270	72	12	144	46	96	48	144	144	36
4	" .	6	12	1,344 ¹	12	18	84	24	6	78	50	144	12	72	72	91
5	" .	4	5	25	24	—	245	75	6	150	12	20	10	100	100	40
6	Middlesex, .	7 ²	11	37	11	24	343	84	23	97	1	53	14	220	31	42
7	" .	5	17	40	14	10	156	68	18	70	8	63	11	107	16	39
8	Norfolk, .	3	6	12	4	26	104	30	3	78	10	35	2	100	25	20
9	Suffolk, .	3	15	25	12	26	144	52	12	52	10	48	24	72	50	15
10	" .	$\frac{7^3}{8}$	3	5	8	15	169	36	5	60	14	53	—	31 ⁴	43	13

¹ The vegetables, poultry and pork, raised by this family, are added in their expenses at their market value. This amount, if taken from their bill of provisions, would bring the sum of their expenses within their income. The raising of poultry and pork undoubtedly accounts for the 1,344 pounds of corn meal.

² Includes one barrel Graham Flour.

³ Bread and crackers, \$13.94; cake and gingerbread, \$12.28; buckwheat, 17 pounds.

⁴ Pickles and catsup, \$2.00; vinegar, 6 quarts; cider, 23 quarts; kerosene oil, 6 gallons; salt, 35 cents.

In addition to the facts tabulated, other valuable information was obtained that will be presented under the "Purchasing power of Wages."

BLANK No. 9. WORKINGMEN'S STATISTICS.

The difficulty of procuring statistics of actual home life, from workingmen has been spoken of in previous Reports. Not familiar with the art of composition, and lacking time to make out the answers, and, as one of them expressed it, "*time to get into a condition of mind favorable for such a task*," alike prevent these; while many no doubt feel suspicious of such inquiries as we are forced to adopt.

We have, therefore, this year, as heretofore, forwarded this Blank to foremen, overseers, and other higher paid workingmen, as well as to lower paid mechanics and laborers, as we could come into correspondence with.

It is important that the notes accompanying the Tables should be consulted before arriving at any conclusion as to wages or cost of living.

The questions in this blank were as follows—

- 1.—Give your age, nationality, and trade or employment.
- 2.—Give time and place of your commencing wage labor, with general history of your employment since.
- 3.—Are you married or single? If married, and having children, state how many, and what members of the family, beside yourself, are now at work, with particulars in each case as to age, kind of employment, wages, hours, etc.
- 4.—Give your own highest, lowest, and average day wages for the past year.
- 5.—Have you earned any money by any extra work, outside of your regular employment, during the twelve months preceding July, 1871?
- 6.—What have been your savings for the past twelve months, and what have been your net earnings since you were 21 years old?
- 7.—Give your own total earnings for the 12 months preceding July 1st, with additional earnings of wife and minor children during same time.
- 8.—Do you own the house and land you now occupy? If *yes*, what is its assessed value? Is said estate under mortgage to a savings bank or to a private party?
- 9.—General description of your house, as to amount of room, surroundings and convenience, distance from work and ease of access, rental, cost, etc.
- 10.—If there are any tenement houses, or other buildings, unfit for habitation occupied in your town, give a description of them, with name of owner.
- 11.—Give details of your expenses for the past twelve months, under their several heads, as follows:—Groceries and Provisions, Fuel and Light, Rent, Clothing, Sickness, Furniture, Education, including all Reading Matter, Charity and Religion, Recreation, Sundries.
- 12.—Give the routine of an average day, as to hours of labor, meals, sleep, etc.

- 13.—Give the amount of your time lost during the past twelve months, with special causes of such losses.
- 14.—Give your practical experience as to hours of labor, including the effect of long and short time upon wages, earnings, health, habits, culture, etc., with ideas upon the subject of reduction.
- 15.—Give experience and ideas as to piece and day-work, with their general contrasting effects.
- 16.—If any accidents have occurred in your establishment or employment, give particulars, and also your views concerning their prevention through legal enactments.
- 17.—Give the effect of new machinery upon the number of persons employed; its effect in raising or depressing wages; in shortening or lengthening the working day; upon cost and amount of production; in stimulating or repressing skill, and in increasing or diminishing the opportunities of workmen entering into business on their own account.
- 18.—What has been your experience with savings banks, either as a depositor or a borrower?
- 19.—What are the habits, and tastes, of the working people in your vicinity as to recreation, amusement, mental improvement, and higher culture? In this connection, state what books and newspapers, or periodicals you are in the habit of reading.
- 20.—If a voter, do you habitually exercise your right as such? And if not, why not?
- 21.—Give your ideas concerning trades-unions, and strikes, and your experience therewith.
- 22.—Have you ever been discharged for participating in strikes, labor movements of any kind, or for being a member of a trades-union, or have you ever known other competent and temperate workmen to be so discharged? If *yes*, give a brief account of such discharge.
- 23.—To what extent have you known industrious and temperate working people to be involved in debt?
- 24.—How many cases have you known of working-men, who had been able, by their own wage-labor simply, to accumulate property, say from \$5,000 to \$10,000? And if *yes*, in what number of years was such amount accumulated?
- 25.—How often should you judge there was an entire change of employes in a given set or room in your trade?
- 26.—What do you know as to the employment of children, under 10 years of age, in your vicinity? Of children, between 10 and 15?
- 27.—In cases of this sort, what are their hours of labor, and what amount of schooling do they enjoy per year?
- 28.—Give names and addresses of friends, who would be likely to answer one of these blanks, if sent to them.

The returns to this Blank are the most copious and clear of any received at this Office; the language used and the penmanship exhibited is far above the average. The average age and wages of the respondents, bespeak them men of thought and character.

TABLE 1.—Occupation, Nationality, Earnings, etc.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	Nationality.	Age.	Hours of Labor, per Week.	Wages per Week.	Earnings the last year.	Expenses the last year.
2	Boot and Shoe Cutter,	American,	36	60	\$21 00	\$1,010 45	\$665 40
6	Machinist and Brass Finisher,	"	54	60	21 75	1,023 75	1,071 75
10	Machinist,	English,	47	63	18 72	970 00	642 00
13	Overseer of Weaving,	American,	55	66	24 00	1,200 00	1,050 00
19	Machinist,	"	39	60	25 86	1,328 71	950 61
30	Shoe Cutter,	"	43	60	15 00	480 00	536 00
34	Boot Crimper,	Irish,	37	60	18 00	850 00	673 00
35	Boot Maker,	American,	40	60	15 72	750 00	639 00
41	Plasterer and Stucco Worker,	"	37	60	25 50	1,122 00	-
46	Shoemaker,	American,	40	60	13 50	550 00	-
48	"	"	37	60	19 50	950 00	850 00
51	"	"	34	60	18 00	900 00	800 10
52	Machinist,	"	65	60	15 00	635 00	-
56	Overseer of Weaving,	American,	51	66	18 00	917 70	650 00
72	Loom Harness Tyer,	English,	-	-	12 00	564 00	809 00
73	Boot and Shoemaker,	Irish,	36	63	10 50	500 00	655 25
90	Machinist,	American,	30	60	18 00	901 54	745 54
91	Carpenter,	"	35	-	19 50	-	-
112	Shoe Cutter,	"	52	60	12 00	500 00	607 00
114	Sexton and Undertaker,	"	56	-	12 00	500 00	700 00
120	Shoemaker,	"	52	-	13 50	675 00	-
121	Iron Moulder,	"	39	54	32 70	1,700 00	1,475 00
122	Bookkeeper,	"	58	66	30 00	1,800 00	-
152	Machinist,	"	41	-	18 00	900 00	-

153	Machinist,	American, . . .	43	60	\$18 00	\$1,050 00	-
156	Shoemaker,	Irish, . . .	24	-	15 00	750 00	-
174	Machine Operator,	American, . . .	31	54	13 50	735 00	-
181	Machinist,	" . . .	35	60	22 20	915 00	\$788 00
185	Overseer in Woolen Mill,	English, . . .	41	66	18 00	936 00	1,000 00
186	Plasterer,	" . . .	50	60	22 50	920 00	1,122 00
188	Bookbinder,	" . . .	40	60	19 98	1,040 00	1,188 00
193	Overseer of Weaving,	" . . .	-	-	18 00	850 00	795 00
195	Salesman,	American, . . .	32	72	12 00	600 00	-
200	Printer,	" . . .	39	72	21 96	1,300 00	-
202	Carpenter and Joiner,	" . . .	52	60	16 50	700 00	-
252	Boot Maker,	" . . .	36	54	18 00	750 00	585 00
264	Shoemaker,	" . . .	35	60	13 02	903 44	703 44

Totals.

Total number returns tabulated, . . .	37	Average wages per week,	\$18 28
Number of occupations, . . .	13	Total earnings past year,	32,177 59
" of Americans, . . .	26	Average earnings of same,	893 82
" of English, . . .	6	Total earnings of 24 returns, giving total expenses,	21,360 59
" of Irish, . . .	3	Average earnings of same,	890 02
Nationality not designated, . . .	2	Total earnings of same,	19,701 09
Average age, . . .	42	Total expenses of same,	820 87
" hours of labor per week, . . .	61½	" savings,	69 15

NOTE.—As before stated, these returns, in several instances, represent the higher paid workmen, and must not be considered as a fair average of earnings of the ordinary wage laborer. For instance, Nos 13, 56, 185, 193, are overseers. No 19 has been an employer of 4 persons for about half of the year. Nos 41 and 200 are foremen, and Nos. 121 and 122 are salaried men. Leaving these returns out of our calculation, we have an average yearly earnings of \$750.82.

TABLE 2.—WORKMEN'S STATISTICS—Cost of Living of Working Men, as given by items.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NATIONALITY.	No. in Family.	Wages, per day.	Groceries and Provisions.	Rent.	Fuel & Light.	Clothing.	Furniture.	Sickness.	Education.	Recreation.	Charity and Religion.	Sundries.	Totals.
2	Boot and Shoe Cutter, . .	American,	4	\$3 50	\$233 87	\$50 00	\$45 00	\$70 00	\$70 00	\$5 00	\$20 00	\$25 00	\$20 00	\$76 53	\$665 40
6	Machinist and Brass Finisher,	"	4	3 62	480 00	112 00 ¹	60 00	167 00	-	30 00	30 00	40 00	50 00	102 75	1,071 75
10	Machinist,	English, .	6	3 12	350 00	100 00	45 60	140 00	-	5 00	10 00	2 00	10 00	-	642 00
13	Overseer of Weaving, . .	American,	3	4 00	350 00	100 00	100 00	60 00	100 00	75 00	25 00	20 00	50 00	150 00	1,050 00
19	Machinist,	"	3	4 50	296 02	-	59 72	194 93	69 73	6 50	46 83	26 67	90 11	160 05	950 61
30	Shoe cutter,	"	6	2 50	350 00	40 00	50 00	25 00	-	75 00	6 00	-	10 00	-	536 00
34	Boot-crimper,	Irish, .	9	3 00	400 00	90 00	64 00	78 00	11 00	10 00	4 50	-	15 50	-	673 00
35	Boot-maker,	American,	5	2 62	225 00	150 00	50 00	100 00	50 00	10 00	12 00	30 00	12 00	-	639 00
48	Shoe-maker,	"	4	3 25	300 00	100 00	50 00	-	-	15 00	-	-	-	325 00	850 00
51	"	"	4	3 00	331 00	120 00	100 00	100 00	25 00	5 00	15 00	10 00	5 00	89 00	800 10
56	Overseer of Weaving, . .	"	3	3 00	175 00	75 00	45 00	100 00	50 00	25 00	20 00	50 00	50 00	50 00	650 00
72	Loom-Harness Tyer, . .	English, .	3	2 00	240 00	144 00	50 00	150 00	60 00	80 00	10 00	35 00	40 00	-	809 00
73	Boot and Shoe-maker, . .	Irish, .	9	1 75	487 00	48 00	40 00	12 00	13 50	20 00	10 00	20 00	13 25	11 50	655 25
91	Carpenter,	American,	-	3 25	400 00	200 00	60 00	100 00	50 00	10 00	20 00	30 00	30 00	14 96	914 96
112	Shoe-cutter,	"	3	2 00	350 00	-	40 00	25 00	-	15 00	10 00	-	-	-	607 00
114	Sexton and Undertaker, .	"	2	2 00	200 00	100 00	50 00	30 00	20 00	200 00	20 00	20 00	25 00	35 00	700 00
121	Iron Moulder,	"	7	5 45	500 00	-	110 00	150 00	90 00	100 00	40 00	20 00	40 00	425 00	1,475 00
136	"	English,	2	3 00	300 00	-	50 00	50 00	50 00	25 00	10 00	20 00	25 00	10 00	540 00

181	Machinist,	.	.	.	American,	.	7	\$3 70	\$575 00	-	\$62 00	\$15 00	-	\$12 00	\$20 00	\$8 00	\$22 00	\$788 00
186	Plasterer,	.	.	.	English,	.	4	3 75	500 00	\$222 00	70 00	75 00	\$10 00	\$25 00	5 00	-	102 00	1,122 00
188	Book-binder,	.	.	.	"	.	5	3 33	420 00	157 00	48 00	190 00	40 00	185 00	40 00	42 00	41 00	1,188 00
193	Overseer of Weaving,	.	.	.	"	.	2	3 00	240 00 ²	60 00	-	60 00	450 00	20 00	-	10 00	10 00	795 00
252	Boot-maker,	.	.	.	American,	.	3	3 00	300 00	-	75 00	50 00	30 00	60 00	25 00	25 00	10 00	585 00
264	Shoemaker,	.	.	.	"	.	3	2 17	300 00	150 00	42 00	107 00	-	25 00	8 00	10 00	43 58	703 44

Total number of returns tabulated, 26; Average number of persons, per family, 4 3-10; Average cost, per family, \$796 47³
 Number of occupations, 9; Number of Americans, 13; Number of English, 6; Number of Irish, 2

Average wages per day, 25 persons,	\$3 10 ⁴	Average cost of sickness for 25 families,	\$43 7 ¹
" cost of groceries and provisions for 26 families,	339 69	" education for 25 families,	17 27
" rent for 20 families,	116 20	" recreation for 21 families,	22 79
" fuel and light for 25 families,	58 46	" charity and religion for 23 families,	26 99
" clothing for 25 families,	86 97	" sundries for 19 families,	91 02
" furniture for 18 families,	66 90								

¹ Interest on mortgage.

² Fuel and light included.

³ It will be seen that in Nos. 19, 112, 121, 136, 181 and 252 the item of Rent is not included. Adding the average of Rent as here given, \$116.20, we find the average of the cost of living to be \$823.29.

⁴ Deducting Nos. 13, 19, 121 and 186 reduces the average day wages to \$2.84.

TABLE 3.—*Value of Real Estate.*

NUMBER OF BLANK.	Age.	Number in Fam- ily.	Earnings of the Family for the past year.	Value of Prop- erty.	Mortgage.
6, . . .	54	4	\$1,071 75 ¹	\$2,800 00	—
10, . . .	47	6	1,596 00	3,300 00	\$2,000 00
19, . . .	39	3	1,328 71	1,800 00	—
35, . . .	40	5	750 00	1,700 00	—
41, . . .	37	3	1,122 00	2,300 00	2,000 00
52, . . .	65	3	635 00	3,000 00	—
60, . . .	28	2	—	550 00	—
72, . . .	68	3	909 00	1,500 00	1,250 00
90, . . .	30	3	901 54	1,400 00	850 00
112, . . .	52	3	500 00	800 00	235 00
114, . . .	56	2	700 00	500 00	300 00
121, . . .	39	7	1,700 00	2,000 00	1,000 00
122, . . .	58	2	1,800 00	1,200 00	—
136, . . .	62	2	650 00	1,200 00	200 00
152, . . .	41	3	900 00	3,000 00	—
181, . . .	35	7	915 00	2,500 00	—
200, . . .	39	5	1,300 00	6,000 00	—
252, . . .	36	3	850 00	1,800 00	—
264, . . .	35	3	903 44	1,100 00	—

Number included in Table,	19
Trades or occupations represented,	8
Average age, in years,	45 6-19
“ number in family,	3 12-19
“ annual earnings of each of 18 families,	\$1,029 58
“ value of property,	2,023 68
“ amount of mortgage,	412 36
“ value of property, less mortgage,	1,611 32
Estimated average accumulation per year since arriving at legal age, includ- ing interest,	66 26

Deducting, as in the preceding Tables, the property of those whose accumulations are not strictly the result of wage-labor alone, the average value of the property, free of mortgage, would be \$689.61.

¹ It will be observed that the earnings given on this and the following table are the earnings of families.

TABLE 4.—*Savings.*

NUMBER OF BLANK.	Age.	Number in Family.	Earnings of the Family for the past year.	Savings.
2,	36	4	\$1,010 45	\$345 05
10,	47	6	1,596 00	700 00
13,	55	3	1,200 00	150 00
19,	39	3	1,328 71	378 00
51,	34	4	900 00	100 00
52,	65	3	635 00	225 00
56,	51	3	917 10	250 00
72,	68	3	909 00	100 00
90,	30	3	901 54	156 00
121,	39	7	1,700 00	225 00
122,	58	2	1,800 00	400 00
136,	62	2	650 00	150 00
156,	24	2	750 00	270 00
181,	35	7	915 00	100 00
185,	41	7	1,400 00	400 00
188,	40	5	1,248 00	35 00
200,	39	5	1,300 00	200 00
252,	36	3	850 00	200 00
264,	35	3	903 44	200 00

Total number returning savings past year,	19
Average age of each, in years,	44
“ number in each family,	4
“ earnings of each of 19 families in year,	\$1,100 74
“ savings of each of 19 families in year,	241 26

Deducting, as in Tables 1 and 3, Nos. 13, 56, 185, overseers, No. 19, an employer, No. 200, a foreman, and Nos. 121, 122, salaried men, and also No. 10, whose earnings are explained in Note, we find the average savings to be \$171.

*Notes to Tables.**

(2.) Has worked at trade twenty years; owns no real estate. Has saved nothing till within the last six years—savings past year, \$345.05.

(6.) Has boy sixteen who works in a wholesale Hard-ware Store; gets \$100 per year. Earnings of self \$1,023.75—boy \$48.00. Owns a house valued at about \$2,800—mortgaged to a Savings Bank.

(10.) Has a wife and five children, one son of 17 who helps at the shop. Gives his income as follows—Own labor in shop—\$970. Son \$380. Savings from 2 cows, \$150. One Boarder—\$96, total \$1,596. Owns house and land valued at \$3,300, mortgaged \$2,000, expenses \$642.

(13.) Worked in a Cotton Mill for the last thirty-four years. Obtained schooling in the evening. Savings for the past twelve months have been moderate. Lost twelve days for sickness, and about ten days from other causes, business and recreation.

(19.) Has received thirty cents per hour through the year; but have had job work half the time, employing four hands and so making a little over sixty cents an hour. Have received some \$40, for services as selectman. Owns house valued at \$1,800, not mortgaged. In sundries has included house repairs, etc.

(30.) Worked at trade about twenty years. Has the help of a girl of 15, who strings shoes at 15 cents per case taking two hours for each case. Has earned some extra money by taking care of two halls and selling sewing machines. Can save *nothing*. Total earnings past year \$480. Thinks the item of sickness might exceed the amount given. Wife has been an invalid for the last three years, and has buried the youngest child.

(34.) Has worked at various kinds of labor for 17 years, and could never save anything. Has the help of a Boy of 12 after school and during vacations. Work holds good only about 9 months in the year. Owns a house in a healthy location, of nine rooms, about nine minutes walk from shop.

(35.) Wife and one child at work—wife earning \$50, boy \$300. Owns house \$1,700, mortgaged to a private party. Expenses \$639.

(41.) Employed as a foreman. Owns house under mortgage to the Mercantile Savings Institution for \$2,000, 8 per cent. payable semi-annually. Gives no account of expenses.

(46.) Married, but no children. Only self at work—Saved nothing. Pays \$120 for Rent, \$20 for reading matter—\$20 for

* The paragraph numbers correspond with numbers of blank in the tables.

Charity and Religion—\$35.00 for sickness. Gave no further account of Expenses. Lost sixteen weeks time, thirteen out of work by reason of business being dull, three weeks sick.

(48.) Children, one thirteen, the other fifteen, attend school. Has worked at trade twelve years. Gave total earnings as \$950.00, and expenses as \$850.00. Said nothing about savings.

(51.) Has two children, both attending school. Saved \$100 past year. Has kept no account of earnings but states them at \$900. Wife, nothing. Lost thirty days including holidays, cause sick on the part of self and others on the same team.

(52.) Has worked at trade over forty years. Has three daughters, two married, one unmarried, a teacher in one of the public schools in Springfield, at ten dollars per week. Owns a house having no incumbrance on it, assessed at three thousand dollars. Gives savings at about 75 cents per day, and total earnings at \$635. Does not give expenses.

(56.) One son, of fifteen, goes to school. Saved about \$250.00. Rent the tenement of the Company he works for. Reckons among sundries, fruit, stationery, etc. Total expenses \$650—Total earnings \$917.70.

(72.) Has wife and five children, only two at home. One, besides self, working at \$1.25 per day in Sash and Blind making. Earnings of self \$564. Boy \$345—making total \$909. Savings about \$100. Owns house assessed value \$1,500, mortgaged for \$1,250. Good house, eight rooms, and good cellar, well supplied with hard and soft water, easy of access, fronting street, yard about 60 feet square.

(73.) Wife fits boots when she can get them. Boy of 11 years pegs boots half the day and goes to school the other half. Works by the job or has a given sum for 12 pairs. Saved nothing—Earnings of self \$500.00, Wife \$60.00. Gives expenses \$655.25.

(91.) Travelled somewhat extensively, and received varied prices for labor, from \$1.25 to \$10.00 per day—but finds wage labor to amount to much the same in all the different places—a bare living. Lives in a hired house, quite convenient, but where the sun never shines. Gets \$3.25 per day. Expenses \$914.96.

(112.) Been employed on Leather, in its different departments, since 1835. Had ten children—only five living, who are all married with the exception of a deaf and dumb daughter, now in her sixteenth year, who works in the shop, receiving about \$12 per month, for the last six months. Has made out the last year to live comfortably and pay most of his old debts. Has house and land, which is in his wife's hands, valued at about eight hundred dollars.

Mortgaged to a Savings Bank for \$235. Has paid a mortgage of \$250, from care of the mortgagee's sick mother.

(114.) Worked in the Boot and Shoe business until the last two years. Saved nothing last twelve months. Earnings about \$500, earnings of child \$200. Owns house assessed value \$500, mortgaged for \$300.

(115.) Commenced work at trade when only nine years old. Has wife and child. Saved nothing, sickness of self and family precluding the possibility. Total earnings given are from March 22d to Dec. 31st 1870—\$580.39. Gives expenses, for the year, at \$609.25. Includes under the head of sundries car fare to and from work \$54.00, and Dog \$7.00.

(117.) Has worked at trade most of the time for 25 years. None earning regularly but himself. Has made something by hiring one or two others in his trade. Saved nothing, 'Doesn't keep any exact account. Lives in a hired house. Rent \$228. Finds expenses to be \$688.63.

(120.) Has four children, three of whom work for wages. The oldest, a boy of 18, stitching shoes by machinery at \$2.00 per day. The second, a girl of sixteen, helps mother in the housework, and in sewing balls, and in making boys' ready-made clothing, on a machine, for Boston market. The third, a boy of 14, works in a shoe shop cutting heels out of pieces left from machine cutting of soles, etc., receives \$1.00 per day. Own earnings for the year \$675.00. Cannot give that of other members of the family; never kept any account. Gives Rent, as \$200. Furniture, as \$143. Sickness, \$10. Charity and Religion, \$25. Puts his money into comforts for his family.

(121.) Receives no income from any member of the family; has five children. Has a salary of \$1,700 a year, or about \$5.45 per day, for every day in the year. Has saved \$225. Owns house. Assessed value \$2,000, mortgaged for \$1,000, at seven per cent. interest, payable semi-annually. Expenses \$1,475. Includes, in Sundries, Premium on Life-insurance, interest on mortgage, taxes, etc. Cash fooled away, spent to no use—\$5.

(122.) Has \$1,500 a year—has earned about \$300, extra work. Saved about \$400. Owns house valued at \$1,200. No mortgage. Gives no further details.

(152.) Total earnings \$900. Owns house and land valued at \$3,000. Not mortgaged. Gives Cost of Fuel and light, \$60. Furniture, \$125. Reading Matter, etc. \$10. Charity and Religion, \$12. Clothing, \$100. Sickness, \$25. Recreation, \$10. Sundries,

\$10. Cannot give any further details—but it takes all he can earn to live.

(153.) Help of a boy, of 17, who earns, when he can get work, about \$6 per week. Has earned \$50 extra. Has saved nothing. No better off to-day than a year ago, with the exception of about \$200 in Furniture. Thinks his earnings would amount to \$1,050. Does not give any details of expenses, with the exception of Fuel, which amounted to about \$64.

(156.) Worked at trade about five or six years. Is a widower, with one child. Boards.

(181.) No children old enough to work. Has saved \$100. Owns house \$2,500, under mortgage. Earnings, \$915. Expenses, \$788. Lost time about 5 weeks, most of it in moving and changing from one job to another.

(185.) By close economy, bordering on niggardliness, has saved \$400. Earnings of the family, (two children working in the mill) \$1,400. Expenses \$1,000.

(186.) Earnings, \$920. Expenses, \$1,122. Lost 5 weeks.

(188.) Has 3 children. One boy works as a compositor, \$4 per week. Total earnings, \$1,040—boy, \$208. Expenses, \$1,188.

(193.) Occupies 4 rooms in the up-stairs part of a block of ten rooms. Has no family but wife. Gives earnings, \$850. Expenses, \$795.

(195.) Rent \$80. Works anywhere from 12 to 18 hours and sleeps accordingly. Gives nothing of details.

(200.) Worked at trade, 17 years, in one Office. None of the family at work. Has earned \$100 extra; earnings at regular employment, \$1,300. Savings \$200. Owns house mortgaged to private party, valued at \$6,000. Does not give expenses.

(252.) Formerly, worked in Cotton Mill. Wife sews straw at 73 cents per day, working 12 hours. Owns house valued at \$1,800, under mortgage. Earnings, \$750. Wife's, \$100. Savings, \$200. Expenses, \$585. Lost three months' time on account of business being slack.

(264.) Additional earnings of \$42 are here added to the sum given, \$861.44—making \$903.44. Owns house valued at \$1,100, under mortgage to Savings Bank. Expenses given as \$703.44.

We now proceed to give Extracts from Blank No. 9 :—

Extracts from Blank No. 9.

[OFFICE, No. 13.]

"Am an American. Age 55 years. Am Overseer of Weaving Room. At 13 yrs. of age commenced work as a bobbin-boy and worked at it 4 years; then worked 5 years in a Machine Shop, and for the last 34 years in a Cotton Mill. My Schooling was obtained in the evenings.

"Rent house of ten rooms, with pleasant surroundings and conveniences, about fifty rods from work.

"Commence work at 6½ o'clock, A. M., leave off at 6½ P. M., with 45 minutes for dinner. Eleven hours per day is not objectionable as regards health, and is quite as good for the morals and well-being of the operatives. As to their earnings, it is more favorable than a shorter time would be.

"Piece work should be adopted in business in all cases when practicable, as it stimulates the operatives to make a good day's work, and they are more attentive to their duties, than day hands, *as a general rule.*

"No accidents have occurred in our establishment, and no enactments are needed to prevent them.

"The habits of the mass of the working people are good. I have access to the Mechanics' Library and Reading Room, and subscribe for four Democratic Papers.

"There is no benefit to be derived from Trades' Unions. Employés change, on an average, about once in three years. There are no children employed, under fifteen years of age. Total Earnings \$1,200. Total Expenses \$1,050. Average wages \$4.00 per day.

[OFFICE, No. 23.]

"A Tin-Plate Worker, 45 years of age. Have no time for history. Have got property by speculation, and have made in the last twelve months about \$1,000. I think that long hours limit the expansion of the better faculties, but foster many of the baser. Short time for labor is the basis of the best Political Economy. Legal enactments will do something in preventing accidents, but short hours will do more.

"The effect of new machinery is to stimulate reflection, induce a desire for knowledge, increase wages, and facilitate opportunities for business.

"My experience with Savings Banks, is, that they cultivate selfishness in a depositor, and assist in oppressing the borrower, but are the best methods we have.

“The tastes of the working-people tend to amusements of a lower order, and are susceptible of great improvement. Trades’ Unions are good but may be demoralizing. Strikes are productive of no good, with rare exceptions.”

[OFFICE, No. 25.]

A Paper Mill Operative :—

“Irish American. 26 years of age. Married—one child 2 years old. Average Wages, \$1.50 per day. House that I rent contains two rooms. I have worked $11\frac{3}{4}$ hours per day for a number of years. Work now 9 hours and like it very much better. There is not an operative in the whole State, I think, but would prefer short hours if they could receive the same pay they now get, and as a whole, that is small enough. The Factory operatives are poorly paid through the State. In most cases, the women receive the highest wages.

“Strikes are very poor affairs.”

[OFFICE, No. 30.]

Shoe Cutter :—

“Commenced the Shoe business about 20 years ago, and worked at the business perhaps half of the time since ; the trade fluctuating to such a degree that I have been obliged to work at anything for support. Am married and have four children. My oldest girl, of 15 years, has worked the past 4 months stringing shoes, at 15 cents per case, taking two hours for each case. My wages are \$2.50 per day. I can save *nothing*. Rent a house of four rooms, one mile from work. There are houses occupied in this neighborhood, that are not worth what they are rented for. When business is good, have very little lost time, but in winter the trade is dull, and I am out of work about three months each year.

“My experience is, that a man can do more work for a year, in ten hours than in a longer time, and that eight, or not exceeding ten, would be conducive to health, good morals, and a better culture of mind and body.

“I think that piece work is detrimental to a good mechanical business. It tends to a greater amount of labor, and a poorer quality of work.

“Trades’ Unions, I think, are an excellent institution when properly conducted. Am a member of one and have been for the last three years.

“ Strikes should not be called into action unless as a last resort. There are times, with certain classes, when everything else fails.

“ There are not many children employed in the shoe trade, but in the Cotton Manufactories, in this place, there is a large number employed *that work twelve hours per day, with little or no schooling.*

“ I think that the labor of this State is not fairly represented. I do not mean that we do not get a fair price for our labor, but that the prices of living are far too high. I cannot tell you why, but we have to pay for flour, beef and pork, more in the country than the cost of the same in cities. Butter and cheese are beyond the reach of us. If we indulge in the luxury of buying a third rate beef-steak, we are charged from 25 to 30 cents per lb. Flour, a good article, costs us \$10.50 per barrel. These are the things, with almost all others, that *keep us*, the laboring men, so poor. It is no wonder to me when men situated as I am, do complain of lack of sympathy from the Capitalist and from Corporations who live in luxury, elegance and ease, while we toil without any recreation and are unable to provide our sick ones with even good medical aid.”

[OFFICE, No. 52.]

A Machinist:—

“ Own a house, with no incumbrance, valued at three thousand dollars. Never lost a moment's time. Have had all the time there has been since I was born. The hours of labor should be eight. If all would labor eight hours, and spend the remaining sixteen rightly, this world would be a Paradise.

“ New and improved machinery has been a blessing to the human race.

“ I read the ‘Springfield Republican,’ ‘Banner of Light,’ ‘American Oddfellow,’ ‘The Heart and Hand,’ and the ‘Bible.’

“ I repudiate all strikes. Coöperation is the only remedy for the laborer.”

This writer makes some extended remarks on the evils of Intemperance, and hopes some one will answer the question, “How shall the evil be stayed?” He believes in moral suasion—the power of love—he thinks that legislation has aggravated and increased the difficulty. Thinks the police courts should be indicted as a nuisance. That there is too much talk and division, and too little action and unity among temperance people. Thinks the best way to save those who are

in the habit of drinking is to give them employment with ample pay, and furnish them with innocent amusement for their leisure hours.

[OFFICE, No. 58.]

Dry Goods Salesman :—

“As I do not believe in the establishment of a Department where all the pecuniary affairs of the laboring classes can be obtained, I decline to make reply to questions of a financial character, for I am of the opinion that it is not for the interest of the laborers, as a class, to forward statements of their pecuniary affairs to any general public office. Reports thus deposited, are liable to be examined by parties who may, both in general and *individual cases*, work injury against the depositors from information there gained. I am inclined to think the Bureau of Statistics may be in many respects beneficial to the best interests of labor, but believe it should be conducted on a different system from that on which I understand it to be established.

“The house I occupy is not kept by the proprietor in proper repair. It rents for more than it is worth, considerably exceeding a fair interest on money invested.

“Lost three weeks, the past year, on account of ill health, caused, I am inclined to think, by the poor ventilation of the room where I am employed.

“In the first store, I worked sixteen hours a day, in the second, from thirteen to fourteen, and at present, about ten hours. I am decidedly of the opinion that a man can do just as much retail business in ten hours, as he can in sixteen. If merchants would only have an understanding as to the time of closing store, just as many goods would be sold and trade as equally divided, and the employés' condition greatly improved. A great reform is demanded in this regard, and I am of the opinion that if the Salesmen would organize their interests, they might bring about this reform. I do not believe in adopting harsh measures to attain the object, but believe a strong organized movement would accomplish, in time, a great improvement. Our house is the only one in the city, on the short working day plan.

“The habits of the people in our business are not generally teetotal, but temperate. Dissipation of any kind is not allowed. I believe in Trades' Unions, and think every branch of labor should be organized. I do not think that the laboring classes, especially in this vicinity, are paying proper attention to the organization of the various laboring interests. Capital is secured and protected by

various organizations, and labor should be as thoroughly organized, that it may successfully resist the encroachments of the capitalist.

“I believe strikes, in most cases, to be more injurious than beneficial to the laborer.

“I believe our Legislatures sit longer than the interests of our State demand; they also give most of their attention to questions of capital and encourage the formation of monopolies, especially, in railroad stocks. *I believe there should be a law preventing any member of the Legislature from accepting free passes over the various railroads.* Think that more extensive investigations should be made into the condition of the laboring classes, and more especially these *poorer classes located in our Alms Houses.*”

[OFFICE No. 60.]

A Shoemaker:—

“Commenced working at the trade in 1865, and have worked at it ever since, when I could get anything to do. Wife works some on sewing machine, at home. Own a small house and two acres of land. My work is in my shop about twenty feet from the house. When a man is obliged to work a certain number of hours every day it grows very tedious, and will wear him out sooner than it will for him to work more hours, where he can quit when he wishes to.”

[OFFICE No. 112.]

A Shoe Cutter:—

“Married. Have had ten children—five living, all married, but deaf and dumb daughter who was educated at the Asylum at Hartford—is now in her sixteenth year—works in the shop by my side. Her wages have been about \$12 per month, for the last six months. Thanks to the Commonwealth for her education, which has enabled her to work from four to six hours daily. This is much better than the general average. Have made out to live comfortably and pay most of my old debts.

“House and land of half an acre are in my wife’s hands, valued at about eight hundred dollars. Mortgaged to Savings Bank for \$235. We have nearly or quite paid a mortgage of \$250, by care of the sick—mortgagee’s mother.

“From time of rising to retiring is sixteen hours, allowing 30 minutes for my dinner, which I carry with me to my work—eight hours for sleep. Amount of time lost past year is from twelve to eighteen days—part of it rustivating at sea-shore, tired from hard work.

“My experience is that I can do more work in eight hours than I can in ten, for then I am alive all the time, but in ten the last part of the time a man is tired, dull and heavy, and work drags hard. A man can work eight hours and feel well and lively. A man that works by the piece, will earn more in eight hours, than a man who works ten hours, by the day. Why? Because he is his own Boss and can rest, and then he is ready to push on again. A man gets up in the morning tired and weary from a hard day's work. He must start, or his time is cut short, and if he loses from an hour to an hour and a half each day, his wages are considerably smaller at the end of the month. But a man working by the piece may spend an hour, go to his work his own Boss, sit down refreshed, and before noon he has gained what he lost; and even if he rests for half an hour, his time is his own and he can make it up at leisure. I know from personal knowledge that piece-work men average one-third more wages, per month, than day hands, and all for the reason that they are not obliged to work more than five or six hours, per day, if they do not wish, and when tired, can rest. This keeps them in working order at all times. And not only this—but they have time to attend to their family duties at home without interference with their work in the shop. But, on the other hand, the day-worker comes home too tired if he is a man, not half a one, or a shirk behind his boss's back, he comes home too tired to do anything about house or garden. Therefore, I say that a man can or will accomplish more in the eight-hour system than in the ten. I do not see that machinery is injuring the business, but the more machinery the more shoes and the more hands. But it does hinder small firms from starting—I mean one-horse ones. It makes it harder for the workmen, for they must travel to their work to the large manufactories employing them.

“Habits of the people in this locality are generally temperate. Their recreation is billiards, croquet etc. I have generally read the standard works; for papers the Daily News, and World's Crisis; with an occasional story by some renowned author. I am not in favor of Trades' Unions, having had some experience in Crispinism. Believe we better remain quiet. Strikes I do not countenance. Think you would have to use something, besides a hay-rake, to find a wage-laborer who had accumulated \$5,000 or upwards. Total earnings, about \$500. Total expenses—including sickness of wife's mother, etc.—\$676. Average Wages \$2.00 per day.

“One word in regard to State Reform School children. Those who have been taken as errand boys and trade boys, in this section,

fare hard. As to school, or anything else for their moral good, it is strictly the reverse."

[OFFICE No. 114.]

Shoemaker :—

"Have worked in Boot and Shoe business most of the time since 1836, until the last two years. Married—Two children. One married, the other away from home. Have saved nothing, the past twelve months. Own house, assessed at \$500. Mortgaged to private person for \$300. Think that ten hours per day is about the right time for laborers to work. Think piece-work is preferable, in most cases. Habits of the workmen are generally good. Have recreation enough for the benefit of all concerned.

"Trades' Unions may be very well, but strikes are not good for the laborer, I think. Have had no experience in either. Do not know of but few, if any, wage-laborers, who have accumulated \$5,000 or upwards. Think they are like angels' visits, few and far between.

"Total Earnings \$700. Total Expenses \$700. Average Wages \$2.00.

[OFFICE No. 115.]

A Shoemaker, 38 years old :—

"Commenced working at the trade when only nine years old, with my father; worked at it ever since with the exception of nearly three years during the war. Married, and one child, none at work. Save nothing. Sickness of myself and family preclude the possibility. Live in a two-story house, five rooms, up-stairs, convenient except for wood and water: surroundings rather *stale*. Just at our South door is a "tenement block" with outbuildings which are very disagreeable, especially at night. Am six miles from work. Car fare \$54. Gone from home 12 hours. Never had any experience as to hours of labor, always working at piece-work. Lost, by sickness, nearly seven weeks, by *rum* as much more, the man with whom I worked being seldom if ever sober, and the 'Boss' refusing to discharge him, I concluded to leave.

"As the supply does not exceed the demand for goods, I think that new machinery rather has a tendency to increase the demand for *skilled labor*, but diminishes the opportunities for parties entering business with a small capital.

"Savings Banks are good institutions.

"The people generally take Sundays for recreation, attend all amusements; but mental improvement and higher culture, are not, we fear, much thought of.

"Take one Daily, and two Local papers, and a Literary Magazine, and have access to Town Library.

"I think, yes, I know, many of our Manufacturers countenance rum drinking. They will hire men who, they know, will disappoint them, in preference to good, sober, industrious men. If *all* manufacturers would refuse to employ men who get *drunk*, it would be the best move in favor of the temperance cause that was ever attempted."

[OFFICE No. 122.]

Book-keeper :—

"Married; have had four children; no minors now. Salary \$1,500, Own house worth \$1,200, with no mortgage. I built it and it is just as I wanted it. Labor eleven hours, have three meals, sleep six hours. Have not been sick a week all together for the last forty years. No lost time. Think one can work eleven hours a day moderately, or eight hours close application, that is, in my occupation; will not speak for any other. Don't think of any children, under ten, at work. Some between ten and fifteen. Think they don't work more than sixty hours a week."

[OFFICE No. 152.]

Machinist :—

"Have worked at Farming and in a Cotton Factory. Married and one child living. Own house and land, assessed value \$3,000. Without mortgage. Distance from work five miles. Conveyance by steam-cars. Cost of fare \$56.00 a year. So far as my experience goes, I think we get better work, better pay, and more intelligent men by the short hour system, but I think the necessities of life rise in proportion. Yet a little time for rest and study is a great blessing to a mechanic.

"Piece work kills the workman, but enriches the boss. Day work is more an even thing. New and improved machinery is killing skilled labor, and lessening the prospect for young men to start for themselves.

"As a depositor, I think favorably of Savings Banks. The working people here are very quiet and industrious. Have but little recreation. Read a Daily and Religious paper, and the Bible. Hope the Bureau will be continued."

[OFFICE No. 252.]

A Boot-maker :—

"Am 36 years old. Commenced wage labor in 1848 in Augusta, Maine. Have worked in Cotton Mills and on Boots since. Married, one child. Wife sews straw, making 75 cts. per day for twelve hours work. Own house valued at \$1,800. Under mortgage to a private party. It is a cottage house of eight rooms, pleasant surroundings, $\frac{1}{4}$ mile from shop. There is one tenement house unfit for habitation on Exchange St. owned by Abel Pond. Lost three months' time, caused by business being slack. I think long hours are bad. When I work a long day I feel like an old man. I work eight hours and I am like a boy, full of life and enjoyment: the mind is active and the brain busy, and the man is no longer a *Slave*, but a man.

"I like piece work better than day-work. If a man wants to gain time he can do so by a little extra effort; by day work he cannot. Think machinery has little or nothing to do with lengthening or shortening day labor, or raising or lowering prices. We fish and hunt, play ball, billiards and so on. Take the Ledger and Weekly. I am a voter and a free man, thank God! I vote as I like, and no man dares say 'why do ye so?' Know nothing about Trades' Unions, but am death on Strikes. Kick them out. There are three to five changes a year, in our trade.

"Total Earnings \$750. Wife's Earnings \$100. Total Expenses \$585. Savings \$200. Average Wages \$3.00 a day."

[OFFICE No. 41.]

Plasterer and Stucco Worker :—

"I was born in Halifax, N. S. Married, one child attending school. Own a house under mortgage to the Mercantile Savings Institution. Pay 8 per cent. interest, payable semi-annually. Would be willing to work for less wages if the hours were shortened. Would have better health and more time to make home as comfortable as I would like it. Could do a little gardening etc. if I had time, but don't feel like doing anything after six o'clock, because I have to work hard and need all the rest I can get, under the present system.

"There are very few Journeymen Plasterers that can earn as much in a year as I do, and there are not many good workmen who would be willing to work in this town, because the work is rough and very heavy. In a place like this, where there are so many houses built on speculation, they look to the *quantity* and not the

quality of the work done. The consequence is they expect a man to do acres instead of yards, and if the work stands until they find a purchaser, that is all they care for. I think there might be some way of remedying this evil, so as to make it easier for the working-man, and parties buying houses would be more apt to get their money's worth. I would advise any one to build, rather than buy of a speculator. The bosses that do the best work that is done in Boston, don't drive their men. But there are hundreds of petty bosses who are in the habit of cutting down men's wages whenever they get a chance, making private agreements with strangers etc. with a view of hustling Union men. They are never satisfied unless a man does twice as much as he really ought to do. I don't know of any place where there is good work done that the men have any reason to complain of being over-worked, but where the work is of an inferior quality they have to work too hard, and this is the reason why I am in favor of an eight-hour law. I think we should have fewer small bosses, and those who have the reputation of doing good work would have more men employed, and there would be less of what is called 'rushing.'

"Total Earnings \$1,122."

[OFFICE No. 48.]

Shoemaker :—

"I have worked at the trade twelve years. Married, two children, ages thirteen and fifteen. Both attend school. Rent house five rooms; small garden, about half mile from work. There are many houses unfit for habitation in the town. I know of one man by the name of Jenness who has a tenement over a row of vaults used by other tenants. His excuse was that land was cheap *above*.

"I am not one of those who are opposed to labor-saving machinery. With the aid of modern machinery the goods can be turned out in a much shorter time—say eight months in the year, thereby causing wages in the dull season, as we term it,—generally very low,—on an average, say 40 per cent. reduction; and it certainly does repress skill by dividing up the work into so many parts. It certainly tends to decrease the cost of production in the first instance, but dear to the consumer, from the fact that they are thrown together by the aid of machinery and polished off to suit the eye, but the feet must suffer. Out of the number who have entered the business the past six or seven years, not one in twenty can make a shoe. This is caused by machinery dividing up the work into so many

parts ; in fact, I don't think, out of the seventeen hundred workmen in this City, there is one in twenty can make a shoe.

"I take one daily, three weeklies, and such other matter as I think I can afford to purchase, from time to time.

"My idea is that Trades' Unions, if of no other use, are an education for the working-men. I know very many who, when they joined a union could scarcely express an idea in public ; but after being associated with others have become quite efficient as debaters. Strikes I detest, as a rule. Not one here for fourteen years.

"This question of accumulating property I have made a subject of careful inquiry among our oldest and most intelligent citizens, and I cannot find a man who with the work or labor of his hands has accumulated \$5,000. A majority of the hands change about once in four months, caused by the depression in business, which causes changing from shop to shop as they can better themselves.

"Total Earnings \$950. Total Expenses \$850."

[OFFICE No. 56.]

Overseer of Power Loom Weaving:—

"Have worked at farming and in several manufacturing establishments. Married and two children ; one married. Rent the tenement I live in of the Company I work for. It is one of twelve, in a two story brick block ; contains seven rooms ; very near my work ; is kept in excellent repair. Not much yard room. Surroundings neat but not very attractive. Begin work 6½ A. M., have ¾ hours for dinner, quit work at 6½ o'clock.

"The greatest amount of work is procured on piece work—the best in quality, as a general rule, by day work. No serious accidents have occurred in this establishment of late, and those which have occurred, are very generally regarded as due to carelessness on the part of the operatives. No legal enactments would have prevented them, I think. The design of new machinery, as a rule, is to lessen the number of persons employed, but does not often affect wages or hours of work, but lessens cost and increases production, stimulates skill as a rule. Can see no reason why workmen cannot engage in business on their own account, as well now as heretofore.

"Have never borrowed of any Bank, but am a constant depositor ; rarely have known of a depositor withdrawing and squandering their deposits. They are the working-classes' truest and best friend. They are doing a noble work. There are none too many, I wish there were more, provided the law would still keep its safeguards around the depositor. In almost every case coming under my

observation—and there are many—I find that a person once becoming a depositor is stimulated to habits of industry, temperance and economy. Were you to require 125 hands, for a year, to do a certain piece of work, and 50 of them were Savings Bank depositors, I would take that fifty on an even chance against the other 75. Rather bold, but my experience here warrants it. Idleness, intemperance and other attendant vices are not common among that class. The good results following every day from these institutions cannot be estimated in dollars and cents.

“Here, as elsewhere, a portion enjoy and have innocent recreation and amusement, and aim at a higher standard of culture and improvement, while a large proportion aim at nothing higher than gaudy apparel, frivolous amusement and barely enough to satisfy the cravings of hunger. Not very flattering I confess, but true.

“My own, and my family’s reading, are from two libraries; mostly History, Biography and Travels, with occasionally some of the light literature of the day; also Weekly and several Daily papers. Know nothing about Trades’ Unions. Think their principles good as far as I can understand them.

“Was never engaged in a Strike and never will be. Have never known of an instance where any real, permanent good came to those engaged in them. There is no need of them. Wrongs were never fairly righted by them. They destroy all confidence between employer and employed, and that alone is enough to condemn them. The best results are always obtained where mutual confidence and trust exist on the part of both. Hundreds of constant, prudent, temperate workmen are drawn into them and the little savings of months, perhaps of years, are devoured in a week by a lazy, drunken, riotous mob. Let those who are dissatisfied seek employment elsewhere quietly, and employers will very soon search out the cause, and if found to be an evil, or just reason for complaint, they will pleasantly and permanently remedy it. By this means a vast amount of evil is avoided, large sums of money are saved to both parties, and mutual confidence and dependence is felt and acknowledged by both parties.

“Was never discharged from any place in my life. Have known of persons’ places being supplied who had left their work without permission to engage in strikes. It is very rare that a clear-headed, competent, temperate workman ever engages in Strikes. The industrious and temperate are not involved in debt to any extent.

“Have known from fifty to a hundred accumulate from \$5,000 to \$10,000 in from twenty to thirty years. Employés change once in one and a half years.

"Know of no children under 10 years employed. There are none in my department. There are some of 10 and upwards in some departments. None of this class are employed except on presentation of a certificate signed by a school teacher, certifying that they have attended school the number of months required by law. It is understood that they are to work but ten hours per day or sixty per week. Total Earnings \$917.70. Total Expenses \$650. Savings \$250."

[OFFICE No. 117.]

Machinist :—

"American, 40 years of age. Commenced wage-labor in 1845 in New London, Conn. Married. No children. Four in family; none earning regularly but myself. Have made something the past year by hiring one or two men, some of the time, in my trade. Have not saved anything. On this point the future is full of doubt and anxiety. Live in a hired house; fair locality, near the shop. When new machinery dispenses with the skilled labor previously required, and can be operated by the unskilled, of course wages are reduced, and the capital of the skilled workman, in his skill, is worthless. There will be a larger demand for the results of the machine, but less for the services of those who have grown old in the trade destroyed. The difficulty of one's going into business for himself is increased by the fact that more and more capital is required to buy the constantly improved machinery.

"I once attempted to borrow money of a Savings Bank, and found it utterly impossible. Never saved enough to deposit. Trades' Unions are the organized, fighting militia of labor against Poverty, and are better than nothing. There will be neither 'Unions' nor 'Strikes' when it becomes easy for an industrious and frugal man to get a living.

"Scores of men have assured me that it was not safe for them to be publicly interested in the Labor Question, and I believe after years of close and pains-taking inquiry, that not one in fifty in New England dare to take a known position on our question. A very few have told me they would do as they pleased, but I always found they did not 'please' to do anything. I have lost one or two situations on this account. On this point there is a 'Reign of Terror' through all our manufacturing districts as far as I am acquainted.

"I believe a very large majority of the industrious, temperate, working people are in debt, though the natural concealment, in

such cases, makes it difficult to estimate. I have never seen one case of a \$5.000 accumulation by wage-labor.

“There is an entire change of employés, say, once a year; though the most, probably, change much more frequently. There is a very large number who now learn their trade in this way—going from shop to shop until increased experience enables them to stay a longer time in one place. The great feature in our trade, is, that the workers learn less and less of the general Machinist work. One man files all the time; another turns or planes, or sets up, or tends some self-acting machine; and thus skilled men are decreasing in number. We used to do more of all parts.”

[OFFICE No. 10.]

A Machinist:—

“Commenced work in a Cotton Mill in England at 8 years of age, working from 5½ in the morning until 7½ at night. In 1844 took the field in advocacy of the ten-hour bill and after its passage was discharged from the mill. Came to this country with his family in 1855; went to work in a Linen Mill, in this State. Wife worked in the mill, leaving a babe in the care of others; followed this until 1857, when the mill suspended operations for 8 months. Was then put back to a starving point. When the mill started up in the spring of '58, owed \$51 for rent to the Company. The agent, who claims to look after the needs of the operatives, took \$7 a month for rent, and \$3.50 for arrears, leaving out of \$19 wages per month \$8.50 for support of self, wife and three children. Both went to work in the mill again, leaving the little ones to others' care. Soon a son took sick and died; and ten days after, a daughter, for want of proper care. Am now at work in Machine Shop. Think if the hours of labor were shortened to 8 or 9 per day, it would be beneficial to both employer and employed. Think that wages would be increased, as in England, and as they always have been everywhere where the hours of labor have been reduced.”

[OFFICE No. 34.]

Boot Crimper:—

“Married and has seven children. Boy of 12 years assists in the shop. Business holds good only about nine months in the year; the season of loafing uses up all of the accumulated earnings. Think nine hours a day would be about right if the same pay would follow a reduction.

"I believe that day-work is better than piece-work. Don't see any amusement only work, except some who can't be in the style on Sundays, go fishing."

[OFFICE No. 35.]

Boot-maker :—

"Married and have three children. Owns a fine two-story house with pleasant surroundings. My experience as to the hours of labor is, that long hours tend to destroy health, bring on premature old age, and make our offspring feeble and effeminate, and above all degrade both men and women, taking all manly feelings and independent thought out of them, making them mere machines and creating a feeling akin to slavery. I believe that eight hours would be a very great benefit to the laboring classes, and that as much work could be performed in eight as in ten hours, on an average, and would give two hours for culture to those who would improve, doing the rest no harm.

"I believe that day-work is better than piece-work, as the tendency is to reduce the pay of piece-workers to the point where they must work long and hard for a fair day's pay.

"I believe that new machinery has a tendency to cheapen production and increase the wages of the laborer, and to shorten the hours of labor and stimulate skill; but on the other hand it tends to consolidate business and throw it into the hands of corporations or heavy firms, and in so doing lessens the chances of the laboring classes to go into business for themselves.

"The habits and tastes of a majority of the laboring-class, owing to long hours and hard work, are downward rather than upward.

"I believe Trades' Unions productive of as much evil as good to the working classes, and that strikes are the worst policy ever adopted by laboring men in this country. It may be advisable in some of the old countries, in extreme cases, but no good can come of them here, according to my experience and observation."

[OFFICE No. 73.]

Boot and Shoe-maker :—

"Don't believe in strikes, but have every reason to believe that there are too many workers at my part of the business. *The people are driven to extreme poverty.*

"There are many children in the cotton-factories, at all ages, from seven upwards. Some have no schooling at all; a mean and dragging life, shut up from the world inside of a prison—Factory.

It would not be safe to talk to them, lest, acquiring information, they would damage their employer.”

[OFFICE No. 174.]

Machine Operator :—

“Age 31—Worked at wage-labor from boyhood. Married. Wife earns from \$30 to \$40 per year sewing straw. Saved very little past year. Since 21 have saved a few hundred dollars and lost most of it. It would be impossible to give a detail of expenses; everything is bought in small quantities and no account kept.

“Think hour labor most beneficial for health usually. Many kinds of work are by custom and convenience done by the piece and have certain advantages particularly in the amount earned.

“Machinery is usually employed for the express purpose of making cheap labor by employing fewer laborers, increasing the amount of production, and lessening the cost, thus enabling the manufacturer to compete with others of the same trade. The goods costing less, enables the holder of them to sell less for the purpose of competition. Not so many laborers are required, but those that are required usually do as well as before, consequently some are stimulated and others discouraged.

“On this subject I have had an opportunity for considerable observation, having had some thirteen years’ experience as a machine operator, and am much inclined to conclude that the effect of machinery is greatly beneficial to all classes, and among other reasons is this—its tendency is to compel many in-door laborers to other employments more healthy because out of doors; and again the products of machinery are cheaper for the consumer than those of hand manufacture and this is a great item where styles change often; and again much laborious hand labor is made easy, giving employment to many females who earn respectable wages, and who would otherwise hardly earn a living.

“Upon the subject of the hours of labor and recreation, so far as my experience and observation go, ‘less work and more play’ should be adopted for a motto of the working classes, and then live within their means. As men grow older the love of money waxes stronger, and body and mind are strained to their utmost to obtain wealth. Wealth is good but health is better, as I find by my own bitter experience. Not that I ever got wealth, but in trying to obtain some, have lost both health and wealth. So far as my observation goes, comparatively few get wealthy by hard labor *alone*, but more frequently by borrowed capital invested in speculative busi-

ness; consequently if there can be any legal enactments which shall *influence* for good the laboring classes, without hard strife with capital, in the name of good sense let us have it.

“Concerning the habits of the working people of this vicinity much might be said. Their recreations are various. Young, unmarried men, ride much, or walk the street and frequent saloons; many that are married, however, do the same.

“The periodical shops abound with novels, police news, Sporting Times and the like, together with the various daily papers. I read the Daily News, and for the family have ‘The Household.’”

In some further remarks this respondent adds:—

“On the subject of recreation, mental culture, etc., of the people of this vicinity I have hardly done all of them justice. Many have gardens to cultivate at ‘odd jobs,’ and the essential matter of politics and the various interests of the town are discussed in the stores during the evening hours, newspapers are read &c., temperance and religious meetings are attended by some.

“Have had no personal experience with Strikes or Trades’ Unions, but have had considerable opportunity for observation. Think strikes are usually detrimental to the good of both the laborer and capitalist. Trades’ Unions usually accomplish much more good if not conducted on the plan of compulsion. On this subject I might add that the fact that Trades’ Unions do exist all over the country, and that many respectable men do endorse them is conclusive evidence of the need of great reform somewhere—but where, and how shall it be accomplished, is a question worthy the attention of all.”—

[OFFICE No. 181.]

A Machinist:—

“35 years of age. Worked 23 years ago in a Cotton Mill. Married, and have five children, none of them old enough, in my estimation, to put out at work. Wages past year \$3.75 per day.

“Have saved one hundred dollars. Own house mortgaged to a private family. New, two stories, two tenements, one on first and one on second floor, six rooms in each, $\frac{1}{3}$ of mile from work—good streets.

“Hours of labor 10, from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M., with 1 hour for dinner which is hardly time enough, for one who has to go $\frac{1}{2}$ mile and has a family, naturally wishes to spend more time at his meals than those who board.

“Time lost about five weeks, most of it in moving and changing from one job to another.

“My experience is that 10 hours is long enough for in-doors, active work, I can stand it to work longer without injury to my health, out in the open air.

“Think piece work the most desirable. Think a man will do more with the same amount of exertion than on day work; his mind is more on the work: especially is this true of second rate or ignorant help.

“Think improved machinery tends to decrease the number of hands employed. Do not think it decreases the wages of skilled workmen, though it enables an unskilled workman to get off a better class of work; but there is always employment enough for skilled persons. Think machinery decreases the opportunities for a man without much capital, entering into business.

“Savings Banks I consider better institutions for depositing than for borrowing, for a poor man.

“Think the habits of the working-classes as good as the average through this State; perhaps it is a little above the towns where there are many cotton or woolen factories. There are many skilled workmen in this town. I have always noticed there was more intelligence among these than among mere laborers.

“Am a constant subscriber and reader of the Boston Journal, Scientific American, Christian Register and a Local paper.

“Never have had experience with either Strikes or Trades' Unions, but have watched them with a great deal of interest. I have never seen any permanent good derived from either.

“Have never known industrious and temperate people to be involved in debt, only in a few cases, and those were by the extravagance of the family.

“There is an entire change of employés in my trade perhaps once in eight years.

[OFFICE No. 183.]

Hand Knitter:—

“I am 48 years old—and an Englishman. Commenced wage-labor in the year 1836, making Stockings, Gloves, and Men's and Women's underclothing.

“Married, seven children. Lost about 12 weeks time—too many hands.

“Think that eight hours is long enough for any man to work—it would have the effect to reduce wages, but I believe they would eventually come up to the old standard.

"I decidedly approve of day-work rather than piece-work. My domestic affairs were always in a good condition when I was on day work.

"I believe all real improvements in machinery to be good for the working-man. I believe they will sooner raise than depress wages; there is no doubt in my mind but that they will shorten the hours of labor. Cost must be cheaper and production greater—they must stimulate skill.

"The opportunities for Workingmen to start for themselves will be diminished on account of a greater outlay for machinery, but their system must be coöperation. I believe coöperation will create a great revolution in manufacturing in this country before many years go by. I may state that if I and my family had been in full work for these 12 months, that I should have had more money by me now than what I am in debt for. Trades' Unions are good but I don't believe in Strikes. I am at the present time nearly \$300.00 in debt."

[OFFICE NO. 202.]

A Carpenter and Joiner:—

"Age 52—American. Commenced wage labor in '33 at Ellsworth, Maine, on a Saw-Mill—then worked at Carriage-making—then Cabinet-making—then as a Sailor—then Carpentering and Joining.

"Married and have two children—Wife, besides her household duties, takes in sewing, in which she is assisted, a very little, by her invalid niece (a member of my family). Have two sons—one 2d Officer of a ship, the other with a farmer, for which he receives Board, Clothing and Schooling.

"Have earned but little at extra work, as I felt too weary after toiling ten hours to do more than the chores at my home. Any savings for the twelve months past, can be reckoned by a cipher, if what has been saved is meant as net earnings, I answer nothing; have lost some \$800.00 by endorsement of a note.

"Live in a house with four rooms; surroundings, marshy lands, the stench penetrating the house: conveniences very good in the house—five minutes walk to horse or steam cars. Rent \$10.50 per month.

"I am informed that a block of houses owned by William Pratt, is totally unfit for habitation. Cause, bad drainage, stagnant water and poorly built. In fact there are a great many tenements built in this city of which it may be truly said, they are unfit for habitation, on account of their surroundings and bad drainage,

many being built on the wet and marshy sand and a stench continually arising therefrom. J. W. Rollins of Boston has some thirty houses on Spruce St., of this description, and nearly all the houses on Cedar St. are said to be unhealthy from bad cellars, in fact none of the privileged or non-producing class who can command the means, could be induced to reside where those that produce the wealth are obliged to, by reason of their poverty. I do not believe this is a right state of things, in fact I know it is not. Let us have justice, as the producers of all wealth, and the Millennium will be near at hand.

“My practical experience has been that long days of labor, have demoralized the workers, injured them physically, lessened their wages, induced them to care for but little except frivolity, made them narrow-minded, and caused them to hate manual labor.

“*Piece work always reduces the worker's wages;* the employer noticing the expert's daily earnings, and averaging the wages of those not able to do as much by it, fixes the price in his mind that he thinks will suffice the workmen, or the lowest possible price any one will do it for, and then if he finds that the workmen are earning more than his price, reduces the price if possible, and in this way, the tendency is, the price is continually reduced.

“New machinery is continually lessening the demand for hand or manual labor; it depresses wages; employers using machinery demand more hours of their employes if possible; for instance: as soon as a builder secures the use of machinery, he demands of his workmen ten hours labor; it represses skill by lessening the demand for skilled workmen, making it more difficult for workmen of limited means doing business on their own account, for want of requisite means.

“It is very difficult and continually becoming more so for mechanics to find steady employment by reason of the great increase of labor-saving machinery, and by reason of requiring the same hours of labor as when less than half the machinery was used. Let us have less hours for toil, and working people will not have need to complain of the want of work. I have always noticed that those who toiled long days, as a whole, cared but little for what makes life pleasant and desirable, apparently; of course, one cannot tell of the silent yearnings of another, but it is evident that a working-man or woman who has to work early and late for a bare living, with but a very slender prospect of bettering their condition, have not much heart to try to get higher culture, and if they have this desire, it cannot be obtained except at the expense of their health. Time is required to procure culture and this they cannot spare with-

out injuring themselves physically. A reduction of the hours of labor will lead workingmen and women to awake from their indifference to that which causes their sad condition, and find the remedy and apply it. In vain do we apply prohibitory laws, while the over-worked laborer feels the need of stimulants to arouse his flagging energies. A proper reduction of the hours of labor will do more to promote the cause of Temperance than a thousand prohibitory laws can. Is it to be supposed that the poor worker who is a thinker, can contrast his condition with the drones of society, and not feel that there ought to be a great change in the distribution of wealth? Let the worker have a just share of what he produces, and there will not grow up this unrest between classes; a feeling fast being engendered among workers against capitalists.

"Habits of the working people here, are not very good. But little amusement and nothing elevated. I do not have the requisite time to peruse the newspapers; out of my leisure I read the Herald on account of its low price; the Workman from choice, and the Watchman and Reflector—do not like its editorials."

[OFFICE No. 19.]

"Am 39 years old—a Yankee—and a Machinist. Am married; have one child at school. Wife at work keeping house for our family. *Wages* a little indefinite. Have had job work half the time, making 60 cents an hour. Own a two-story house without incumbrance.

"My experience is that where I have built machines by the job, I have made better pay, and my employer has got his work done a little cheaper and more of it from the same tools and shop room, and I feel more anxious to have the machine right, for if it is not right, my reputation as a machinist suffers.

"I have never seen anything to make me afraid of better machinery. I don't believe in old tools. I deposited my savings until I got enough to risk buying me a home. It was a great convenience to me, and I think the working-man can ill afford to do without them.

"I consider Trades' Unions as they are conducted a somewhat expensive *nuisance*.

"I cannot call to mind a single case where a man ever saved the smaller amount (\$5,000) by his own wage-labor simply. Total Earnings \$1,328.71. Total Expenses \$950.61."

[OFFICE No. 90.]

“A Machinist. Age 30. Commenced learning my trade in Lowell at the age of fifteen, working eleven hours per day. Continued there for seven years, then came to Boston and have worked ten hours per day ever since, excepting one year in the United States service. Am married and have one child. Own a house which is under mortgage to a private party. Contains six rooms with 1,200 feet of land, with usual city conveniences, about two and a half miles from shop. There are Horse, Steam Car and Ferry communication. Rise at five o'clock, read or do chores until six, eat breakfast, and start for shop. Commence work at seven, leave off at twelve, take one hour for dinner, and leave off again at six; get home at six forty-five, go to bed between nine and ten. Have lost about six days time which has been made up mostly by working over time. So far as I have seen, those who work the least hours receive the most wages, and I think a still further reduction will not decrease wages. Have worked but very little by the piece, but think it is better for men to work by the day. The increase of the Machine business more than keeps pace with increased facilities for doing work, but makes it more expensive for one to commence business for himself. Have only been a depositor in Savings Bank. It has always proved a safe investment to me. Think the majority of the working-men in this city spend their evenings at home. I take the ‘Scientific American,’ ‘American Workman,’ ‘Harper’s Magazine,’ and ‘Machinists’ and Blacksmith’s Monthly Journal,’ and also the ‘Boston Daily Herald.’ Think the Trade Union of which I am a member, very beneficial, but do not approve of strikes.

[OFFICE No. 156.]

“Shoemaker of Irish birth, 24 years of age. Has worked on a farm, in a Woolen Factory and served in the U. S. Navy. Is a widower with one child. Boards with his mother. Has saved some two or three hundred dollars past year. Lives in a house occupied by four families numbering in all thirty-one persons. Sanitary condition is very bad. The amount of time lost for the last twelve months is about two months principally on account of business being dull. Works now nine hours per day. Has found that the shortest day’s work always gives the best wages and the most work the year round. Have seen the effect of long hours in the factory and they were anything but beneficial, especially on children who were put into the factories too young. It is his opinion that if the hours of labor were shortened, it would reduce the mortality of factory operatives at least six per cent., and that class of people would

become more intelligent, because they would have more time to cultivate their intellects.

"I have always earned the best wages at piece-work, but have always found day-work the easiest. It is my opinion that most of the new machinery introduced into the shoe trade, tends to reduce the number of persons employed in that business and depress wages, and that the goods made by machinery are not as durable as those made by hand.

"The habits of the majority of the working-people in this vicinity are moderately temperate; their tastes for recreation differ; their tastes for amusements seem to be mostly of a musical character. For mental improvement and higher culture they attend lectures and read most of the leading periodicals of the day, and most of them are religiously inclined. I am in the habit of reading the Boston Dailies, the local papers occasionally, and a political and religious Journal, National Histories, &c.

[OFFICE No. 158.]

"Machinist, 43 years of age. Have worked in about thirty-five different shops. Married, and two children. One boy seventeen years old earns about six dollars per week. Haven't saved a cent for the last twelve months. Am no better off only in about two hundred dollars for furniture. Will explain a little. Was married at twenty years of age, and although for the next twelve years my wages never exceeded \$11 per week, yet that was the only time I was ever able to save money. During the first ten years of my married life, I saved about \$500, then my wife was sick for two years and finally died, and I was \$150 in debt. Since the war began my wages have increased seventy per cent. but living has increased as much. Now I support an aged father and an orphaned niece. You can easily see where my money goes to.

"There are but a very small proportion of my acquaintances among mechanics who own their houses—say one in ten. I live in a cottage house of seven rooms, $\frac{1}{2}$ acre land, walk $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles and ride 10 to get to my work. It belongs to our family, pay no rent, but pay \$72 per year car fare. I get up about five o'clock, have to take cars at six, and it is about quarter to eight when I finish my supper. All the rest of the time is occupied in going to and from my work except one hour for dinner. Lost sixteen days."

SAVINGS BANKS.

Our investigations into the earnings and cost of living, of wage-laborers, the results of which were given in the two preceding reports, convinced us, that savings, are the exception and not the rule. To reconcile this fact with the general statement that the hundreds of millions of dollars now on deposit in our Savings Institutions, are the savings of the wage-laborer, is impossible.

That these institutions were originally intended to promote habits of frugality, thrift, industry and temperance, by encouraging the poor to save as well as earn, is conclusively shown in the following brief account of their origin and aims, taken from the report of the Bank Commissioner for the year 1851:—

“Savings Banks are of comparatively recent origin. The earliest, of which we have any account, was established in Berne, Switzerland, in 1787. At about the same time, another was founded at Geneva, and, in 1792, one at Basle. In England, no Institution resembling a Savings Bank was known until about the commencement of the present century. The earliest, which received the form and plan of an Institution for Savings, as now understood, was established at Tottenham, in 1803, or 1804, by Mrs. Elizabeth Wakefield.

“Until the year 1810, there had been no plan devised for general use, and no public interest excited in behalf of such institutions. They were voluntary associations, formed for the benevolent purpose of saving the earnings of the poor, and returning them with interest, when the necessities of the depositors should require them.

“They were not brought under Parliamentary regulation until 1816, in which year the London Savings Bank was established; and it was not until 1818, that one was founded at Paris. After the Act of Parliament for the regulation of Savings Banks was passed, they became numerous throughout Great Britain. In 1828, an Act was passed to consolidate and amend previous laws, but this Act was not extended to Scotland, until 1835. And yet such has been the rapid growth of these institutions in the United Kingdom, that on the 20th of November 1849, their deposits amounted to nearly £30,000,000, or nearly \$150,000,000. It was remarked in the British Parliament, that, when these banks were first established, it was believed that £1,000,000 would be the largest sum ever deposited in them; but that sum had risen (in 1848) to upwards of £18,000,000.

“In Great Britain, we have account of the first 20,000 depositors who opened accounts. Their classification was as follows:—

Domestic Servants,	7,245
Persons engaged in Trade, and Mechanics and Manufactures,	7,473
Laborers and Porters,	672
Minors,	1,454
Friendly and Charitable Societies,	58
Persons not classed, viz.: Widows, Teachers, Sailors, Soldiers,	3,098
	<hr/>
	20,000

“The oldest Institution of this kind in this Commonwealth, is the ‘Provident Institution for Savings in the Town of Boston.’ It was incorporated, December 13, 1816, about the time when Savings Banks began to excite general interest in Great Britain, and to attract the notice of her statesmen as well as philanthropists. The petition which was presented to our General Court, for the incorporation of the ‘Provident Institution’ in Boston, so well explains the design of its benevolent founders, that we give it entire. It was as follows:—

“*To the Honorable Senate and House of Representatives, etc.*

“‘Humbly represent the Subscribers, citizens of the Town of Boston, that, in their opinion, an Institution, by which all classes of the community may be encouraged to the practice of frugality, and especially industrious mechanics, either journeymen or masters, seamen, laborers, and men of small capital, widows, and others, may receive from their savings of wages or profits, regularly deposited and systematically invested in public stocks or otherwise, a profit proportional to the success of the institutions and prosperity of the Country, is highly desirable; that similar benevolent institutions have been eminently successful in other Countries, and are now contemplated in Philadelphia and New York; that they do not expect or desire any benefit or profit to themselves, other than what is enjoyed by every individual in the community, from the success of such a design; that they are willing to devote a part of their time, without reward, to the management of such a charity, and give the profits of the establishment in due proportion to the depositors; that they desire not to have the authority, but only as above supposed, to receive deposits, in sums as small as one dollar, and to divide among the depositors the profits arising from these funds, invested in the most secure stocks, or from loans; and, to ensure more effectually these useful ends, they pray that they may be incorporated into a Company by the name of “The Provident Institution for Savings in the Town of Boston,” with such immunities, restrictions, rights and privileges, and duties, as to your Honors may seem meet—and as in duty bound will ever pray.’

“No more worthy object could have presented itself to the founders. It was the first and best step in the direction of the wisest charity, to help the helpless by teaching them to help themselves. To this instrumentality, we owe the breaking up and almost final extinction of the old hoarding process of accumulation; a process that made frugality and miserly suspicion, twin-brothers. How many have been lifted up out of the slough of poverty and vice by this excellent system, no one can tell. But that the hundreds of millions of dollars now in deposit in the banks, are the savings of wage-labor, is a statement based upon the theory of these institutions, rather than upon fact. Evidence that such is not the fact, may be found in nearly every successive Report of the Bank Commissioners, as well as by repeated references to the subject, in Gubernatorial addresses.”

On page 23 of the Report of —, the Commissioners say :—

“Persons, who are regarded as wealthy, make deposits in Savings Banks to the extent of the legal limits, for the very purpose of accumulation, and of availing themselves of a share in the surplus profits, every fifth year.”

And again :—

“The limitation by law, of the amount of deposits which any individual can make, is easily defeated by making the deposit in the names of other members of the family, or of friends of the depositor, or by making deposits in several institutions.”

The Commissioners in 1853, page 53, say :—

“The banks should be confined, as closely as possible, to the receiving of deposits from those who ‘need to be encouraged in the practice of frugality.’ With ordinary care, this class of persons may receive adequate returns; and the cases will be but few, in which the sum of \$500, will be reached, especially if a distinction, similar to that in New York, should be made here, in favor of the smaller depositors.

“If men of competent means, in *their own names*, and in the *names of others*, are to be allowed to make deposits for the sake of the large surplus accruing, in great part, from the hard-earned pit-tances of the poorer classes, the chief design of the institution will be perverted.”

On page 71, of the report of 1855, the Commissioners again call attention to the object of these Institutions. They say :—

“It was not contemplated that these receptacles of the small earnings of the proper beneficiaries would overflow with contributions from the thrifty and prosperous of all professions of men. The State prescribed how the expected deposits in these institutions might be placed in quiet investment, not anticipating that a great portion of the wealth and capital of the country should be invited to come in, and, when there, be diverted from the ordinary channels of trade.”

Further on, they say :—

“As we often intimated, the *accumulations of these banks are derived, in great measure, from the deposits of a class of men who are able to manage their own investments, and whose means are too ample to need the gratuitous aid of others in this particular.* The public is very apt to test the success of a Savings Bank, by the amount of money it holds on deposit. This rule of judgment is fallacious ; and we are bound to consider whether all the sources from which these supplies flow into the banks, fully entitle them to the encomiums that have been lavished on them. *Mere increase of deposits alone is not evidence that they are doing the proper work of Savings Banks.*”

In the report of 1861, the Commissioners make no reference to the fact that deposits are largely owned by the wealthier classes, and presume them to be the deposits of the poor. They say :—

“No more striking evidence of the prosperity of the people of our Commonwealth could be adduced, than that which this table affords. The savings of the industrial classes are a fair index of the prosperity, and indeed of the moral condition of any people. It has been claimed to be the tendency of modern civilization to make the rich richer, and the poor poorer. However true this may be in countries governed on a different system from our own, it does not seem to be the character of our material development. Whatever of wealth and of the comfort and even luxury, which wealth brings, is enjoyed by our people, in the aggregate, is shared to a degree, which is unknown elsewhere, by all classes of the population.”

The report of 1866, refers to the motives which induced the establishment of these Banks by the State, and thus continues :

“It is upon this feature in their organization that their real value to society chiefly depends, and if at any time the laudable purpose for which they are created, shall be substantially evaded by those who are interested with their management, the good of all will require additional legislative restrictions. Whether the intentions of the legislature are now being fairly carried out, can only be determined *by requiring the return of additional facts.*”

The following, from the report of 1867, page 109, is worthy of attention :—

“The single fact of a rapid accumulation in our Savings Banks does not, of itself, afford any evidence that they are performing the beneficial work expected of them. Indeed, it should cause those who are intrusted with their supervision, to scrutinize the fact with much care.”

By the table of aggregates, Report of 1867, it appears that more than one-third of the amount of deposits for the year was received in about one-eighteenth of the whole number of deposits, averaging \$475.60 each, while the remaining deposits average \$53.30. The Commissioners say :—

“The returns would seem to afford some foundation for the belief, that much attention is not given to the source from which deposits come.”

Farther on, they say :—

“This amount may have been affected by the proceeds of the sale of Government Bonds held by persons of small means and formerly depositors in Savings Banks, who made the change because of the great risk in keeping such securities without a safe place of deposit.”

The Commissioners, however, say :—

“Much more may properly be attributed to the increased rate of interest which the institutions are able to pay in consequence of a

higher rate of interest received upon their loans, large dividends on bank stock, and the interest in gold upon their bonds."

We learn from the report of 1869, that,—

"The deposits and surplus earnings of the Banks, on the thirteenth day of October of that year, were \$114,801,608.23; equal in amount to the value of all the corporate capital invested in Cotton, Woolen, Iron and Leather Manufactures; nearly double the appraised value of all the Railways, and exceeding, by thirty-five millions dollars, the capital of all the Banks of Discount in this State, last year."

The Commissioners then state :—

"That this capital is mainly the fruit of labor and economy substantially belonging to the actual laboring classes, who depend upon their labor for support; and that with many depositors it is all they possess, and their only defence against pauperism when misfortune falls upon them."

On the next page, they say :—

"It is true that, for the last three years, another class of depositors has been attracted, to some extent, by the high rate of interest paid by a part of the Banks; by the exemption of the deposits from taxation to the depositors; and by the fact that deposits may generally be withdrawn without previous notice. *How large this class of depositors is to the whole, it is impossible to ascertain accurately; but careful examination satisfies us that it is not large. The tendency is, however, toward an increase of this class.*"

In 1870 the Commissioners reported that,—

"The Savings Bank deposits have become, with many people, the most desirable investment for limited capital,—a fact becoming generally known and appreciated.

"No institution is permitted to hold over a thousand dollars belonging to a single depositor, but as many deposits of that amount may be made by one person as there are Banks in the State; *and it is not very unusual to find in one institution several deposits evidently the property of one person, though standing in the names of others.* If the law regulating deposits shall remain as it now

stands, a large annual increase may be expected, so long as a majority of the Banks continue to pay the present rate of dividends.”

“The safety of the deposits is a subject of such general and grave importance, that more than ordinary precaution may properly be used. Experience in all moneyed institutions teaches the necessity of frequent and thorough examinations of every item of business involving the receipt or payment of money, and *in no institution is this exact supervision more needed than in Savings Banks. Without it, a system of fraud may be carried on for years, and until some accident reveals its existence.*”

To this testimony of the Bank Commissioners we append the following extracts from the annual address of Governor Claflin. In his message for 1869, in speaking of Savings Banks, he says :

“Depositors, from year to year, seek to avail themselves of their benefits, by increasing their deposits through other names than their own.”

Again, in 1870, he says :—

“These institutions are becoming still more the favorite places of deposit, not only for persons of small means, but also *for those seeking investment for very considerable sums.*

“The prudent management of those Banks has met its reward in gaining the confidence of the public to such a degree *that even the capitalists use them as places of investment.*”

The Governor also says, in speaking of the increase of deposits, in his message for 1871 :—

“It is very evident that *a large share of this increase is not the savings of labor. Each year shows more deposits by capitalists.* The accumulations of capitalists, will, in the end, find their way largely into these institutions, for as our banking law now stands, they furnish the only place of deposit for persons desiring to have their invested funds on interest, and at the same time subject to their immediate call.”

Further on, he says :—

“Owing to the great changes in our financial affairs the drift of these institutions is to become ordinary money corporations.”

With these statements before us, and the conflicting theories expressed in public lectures and by the press, that the Savings Banks indicated clearly the condition of the wage-classes, we prepared Blank No 10 ; our object being,

1st. To ascertain to what extent the deposits in these Institutions represent the savings of the wage-laborers.

2d. To what extent they aid the class for which they were instituted.

After an examination of the books of some of the best managed Banks in the State, as well as after correspondence and conversation with gentlemen familiar with the subject, we prepared a blank, submitting the copy to bank officers, and other competent persons. After much study, the following form and questions were adopted :—

Number of different depositors, ; amount of deposits, ; number of deposits during last 12 months, ; amount of same, ; sex of depositors—male, ; female, ; nationality—native, ; foreign, ; married—male, ; female .

Occupation, etc., of depositors during past year :—

Farmers, ; farm laborers, ; seamen, ; teamsters,* ; boot and shoemakers, ; factory operatives — male, ; female, ; minors, ; mechanics, ; laborers ; miscellaneous employments, ; housekeepers, ; domestics, ; shop girls, ; clerks and accountants — male, ; female, ; overseers and foremen, ; traders, ; builders, ; miscellaneous, ; trust accounts,† .

Number of deposits in past year, in sums,—

Under \$1, between \$1 and \$2 ; \$2 and \$3 ; \$3 and \$5 ; \$5 and \$8 ; \$8 and \$10 ; \$10 and \$12 ; \$12 and \$15 ; \$15 and \$20 ; \$20 and \$25 ; \$25 and \$50 ; \$50 and \$100 ; \$100 and \$200 ; \$200 and 300 ; \$300 and \$1,000.

Number of depositors whose yearly deposits are between,—

\$5 and \$10 ; \$10 and \$20 ; \$20 and \$30 ; \$30 and \$50 ; \$50 and \$75 ; \$75 and \$100 ; \$100 and \$200 ; \$200 and \$300 ; \$300 and \$500 ; \$500 and \$750 ; \$750 and \$1,000.

From two months in the past year, one having the largest and one having the smallest number of withdrawals, give the number of such withdrawals :—

Month containing the largest number, ; \$10 and under ; between \$20 and \$30 ; \$30 and \$50 ; \$50 and \$100 ; \$100 and \$300 ; \$300 and \$1,000.

* NOTE.—Under “ Teamsters,” give all who drive or take care of horses. Under “ Miscellaneous,” give all depositors who may be classified as salaried, professional, or other persons, not specially named in other columns.

† Under “ Trust Accounts ” give the number of depositors who deposit, either for societies, or for more than one person.

Month containing smallest number, ; \$10 and under; between \$10 and \$20; \$20 and \$30; \$50 and \$100; \$100 and \$300; \$300 and \$1,000.

Give number of loans in amounts of or under \$500, \$1,000, \$2,000, \$3,000, \$5,000, over \$5,000.

How long, on an average, do deposits of sums less than \$25 remain? Of sums less than \$100? How many depositors of sums less than \$50.00 had you on last dividend day? What proportion of your loans are made upon personal security? Does the treasurer of your bank hold any position in any other bank, and what is that position? What are the bank hours in your establishment? How many of your depositors are non-resident of the State? How many are non-residents of your town or city? How many of your *trust account* deposits, are deposited for societies of any sort? What is the total amount of such deposits? Give business occupations of your three classes of borrowers, who borrow the largest aggregate amount, whether manufacturers, traders, farmers, etc. Do your small loans increase or diminish in number, in comparison with your large loans?

Some of the questions in the foregoing Blank are the same as those contained in the report of the Bank Commissioners, and our reason for repeating them, was, that, without corresponding data, we could not give correct results.

It was well known to us that many Banks would be unable to answer *all* of these questions; but, in this, as in all other circulars, we adopted the rule of asking as many questions as *any one* could answer. That we have not asked any questions not susceptible of an answer, is proved by the fact that 8 returns have been received giving full and complete replies; and, as will be seen, the Five Cent Savings Bank of Lynn, and the Salem and Amherst Savings Banks, have added much other valuable matter.

Some of the Banks complain that they would "be obliged to hire a clerk for six months, to comply with our request"; while other Banks, with no larger force, responded within a very few weeks from date of circular. The difficulty was not with the questions asked, but with the system, or want of system, of the Banks. We have examined the books of manufacturers in a great variety of employments, from the largest, where the number employed is counted by hundreds, to the smallest, where but two or three are employed, and we confess that very rarely have we found so great a need of system, as among some of our Savings Banks.

This may, in part, be accounted for by the cheapness with

which the work is performed. We are thoroughly convinced, from the limited examinations we have been able to make, that an increase in the item of cost might be a most profitable investment in the matter of safety.

Another reason may be found in the union of National and Savings Banks ; a union doubtless convenient and profitable to the Banks of Discount, *but of doubtful advantage to the Savings Institutions.*

The following letter, bearing the imprint of a National Bank, will explain the close connection of some of these Institutions ; although it is but just to say that this respondent, notwithstanding his double duty, sent in a complete return.

OCTOBER 31, 1871.

GENTLEMEN :—Your circular of inquiries—dated August 29th—was duly received. The Savings Bank and this Bank occupy rooms and safes together. Neither has a clerk. We mutually assist. The cashier was taken sick in April, was mostly away till October 1st, when he resigned. His successor was unacquainted, and my time has been fully occupied with doing the work of the First National Bank. The new cashier is now absent—will return in a few days—and as soon as I can thereafter—I will answer your questions. If not satisfactory—let me know.

With respect,

Treasurer.

This system of committing the charge of two distinct Banks to the same person, has been referred to by nearly every Bank Commission since 1851 ; the carelessness of accounts referred to by us, is thus spoken of on page 117, of the report of the Bank Commissioners for 1851 :—

“In some instances, we have found Cashiers of Banks officiating also as Treasurers of Savings Institutions. This is objectionable, as Cashiers usually have quite as much work as they can properly attend to, in discharging their duties to the Bank with which they are connected ; and, in more than one instance, *we have found the books of Savings Institutions not posted for some considerable time, and their accounts otherwise neglected*—and the excuse offered, was, that the Treasurer had not found time to attend to this business, on account of his occupation as Cashier.”

The Bank Commissioners of 1858, page 127, in speaking of the percentage of cost, say :—

“It is the dictate of sound policy, especially in reference to offices of trust, to pay liberal, not extravagant, salaries. This is the best way to secure talent and maintain honesty. It often happens that we find the offices of Cashier and Treasurer united in one individual; and the reason assigned is, ‘to save expense.’ This we regard as poor economy. The duties of these officers are various, sometimes conflicting, sometimes exposing the incumbents to unnecessary temptation, and always dividing attention which were better directed solely to one object.”

The report of 1860 refers to the same subject, on page 141 :—

“Managers of Savings Institutions commit a serious error of judgment, when they place their trust in the hands of a Treasurer already heavily burdened (as Cashier) with perhaps a Bank of Discount, or other more lucrative, and, to him, more important duties. Very many of the irregularities which occur are occasioned by this practice. In most instances of this kind, *particularly in cases where accounts are kept on slates and posted on books only semi-annually, and where the trustee and corporation records are only to be found upon loose sheets and scraps of paper*, the Banks so managed, or mismanaged, may safely be called neglected Institutions.”

On page 170, of the report for 1861, the separation of Savings Banks, from Banks of Discount is spoken of as one that has been frequently advocated by their predecessors. They say,—

“There is danger of relations growing up between the two institutions more intimate than the law allows, and it is almost certain that the interests of one or the other will be, sooner or later, neglected. An experienced manager lays it down as an axiom, that Savings Bank officers, ‘should be free from entanglements with other moneyed institutions.’ In our examinations, we have often found the books of a Savings Bank sadly in arrears, because the Treasurer had been too much occupied with his duties as Cashier, *to keep them written up*. Nothing is of more dangerous tendency than a neglect to keep the transactions of a moneyed corporation properly entered and posted.”

Further extracts from the report will be made on other pages.
We now proceed to give,—

Returns to Blank No. 10.

Number of Savings Banks addressed, 140. Number of Returns, 67. Complete, 8. Nearly full, 18. Incomplete, 11. Very incomplete, 19. Not Tabulated, 11.

Number returns giving	Occupations of Depositors,	22
“ “ “	Deposits between \$100 and \$1,000,	39
“ “ “	Amounts yearly Deposits,	15
“ “ “	Withdrawals,	44
“ “ “	Amount of Loans,	47

The following tables, with their totals and averages, giving returns to Blank No. 10, clearly show that the largest percentage of depositors are wage-laborers, *but that they hold the smallest share in the deposits.*

TABLE 1.—*Number and Amount of Deposits, Different Depositors, Sex, Nationality, etc.*

No. of Blank.	BANK.	No. of different Depositors.	Amount of Deposits.	No. of Deposits last 12 months.	Amount of Deposits.	SEX.		NATIONALITY.	
						Males.	Females.	Native.	Foreign.
2 ¹	Amherst Savings Bank,	1,392	\$229,836 49	1,364	\$103,945 31	677	687	1,229	135
3 [†]	Andover Savings Bank,	2,388	807,329 97	190	50,632 00	100	90	-	-
5 [†]	Athol Savings Bank,	2,260	443,056 25	1,498	172,452 03	984	514	-	-
7	Barnstable Savings Bank,	3,436	1,176,378 00	1,332	174,921 00	811	521	1,377	55
8	Barre Savings Bank,	667	162,035 43	687	88,501 52	348	319	645	42
10*	Beverly Savings Bank,	1,310	300,836 00	1,384	88,341 00	819	491	-	-
13 [†]	Brighton Savings Bank,	625	118,637 40	827	69,560 58	395	230	208	417
17	Canton Savings Bank,	920	210,817 05	692	46,118 00	372	320	-	-
18	Cape Ann Savings Bank (Gloucester),	2,669	655,758 00	2,706	207,917 00	1,727	979	-	-
22	Chicopee Savings Bank,	1,109	353,463 32	1,443	137,048 50	388	402	538	512
25 ¹	Lowell City Savings Institution,	8,255	2,928,731 00 ²	7,168	611,981 00	-	-	-	-
27	Lowell Savings Bank,	853	283,568 01	436	50,193 00	184	108	270	22
28 ¹	Danvers Savings Bank, ³	-	-	1,379	125,889 00	-	-	-	-
29	Dedham Savings Bank,	3,188	870,609 55	1,707	122,717 00	846	861	804	903

¹ Occupations and yearly deposits not given.² Not including \$101,491.00 dividends carried to the credit of depositors.³ Blanks 28 and 72 give the number of depositors as 2,366 and 1,822—amount of deposits are not given.

TABLE 1.—*Number and Amount of Deposits, Different Depositors, Sex, Nationality, etc.*—Continued.

No. of Blank.	BANK.	No. of different Depositors.	Amount of Deposits.	No. of Deposits last 12 months.	Amount of Deposits.	SEX.		NATIONALITY.	
						Male.	Female.	Native.	Foreign.
32	East Boston Savings Bank, . . .	4,059	\$1,241,301 00	9,521	\$925,833 00	2,627	1,433	2,435	1,625
48†	Great Barrington Savings Bank, . .	1,079	230,654 30	1,465	128,015 10	530	519	-	-
49	Groveland Savings Bank, . . .	84	10,600 00	81	6,199 00	55	19	83	1
53†	Hingham Savings Bank, . . .	3,440	1,205,681 25	1,506	150,938 09	803	703	-	-
54	Holyoke Savings Bank, . . .	2,212	635,462 80	4,226	404,684 00	1,106	1,106	-	-
55†	Boston Home Savings Bank, . . .	11,577	4,553,306 47	26,000	3,181,444 19	9,177	2,400	9,677	1,900
56†	Hopkinton Savings Bank, . . .	396	85,377 93	590	45,383 68	-	-	-	-
58*	Hyannis Savings Bank (Barnstable), .	1,031	316,111 01	1,060	154,203 27	201	194	384	11
60†	Newburyport Savings Bank, . . .	8,941	3,408,996 25	5,361	501,203 86	3,902	5,039	7,836	1,105
67	Lowell Five Cent Savings Bank, . .	9,122	2,263,672 70	9,072	607,706 36	5,147	3,898	-	-
69†	Lynn Five Cent Savings Bank, . . .	6,702	1,143,898 38	11,064	659,801 24	-	-	-	-
72†	Marlboro' Savings Bank, . . .	-	-	1,504	212,641 00	1,452	370	-	-
73†	Lowell Savings Bank, . . .	3,981	1,660,000 00	4,172	528,285 00	2,225	1,756	-	-
79*	Nantucket Savings Bank, . . .	1,540	498,319 55	1,229	113,126 40	538	553*	583	32
81†	New Bedford Savings Bank, . . .	-	-	10,668	683,996 86	-	-	-	-
82†	New Bedford Savings Bank, . . .	14,697	6,230,364 49	9,536	1,310,395 76	-	-	-	-

85	North Adams Savings Bank, .	1,885	\$515,441	76	2,350	\$217,686	82	1,100	785	-	-
86*	North Bridgewater Savings Bank, .	1,712	398,958	25	1,731	182,597	91	843	936	1,296	388
89 ¹	Worcester Savings Bank, .	7,731	2,542,237	14	10,714	989,331	86	-	-	-	-
90†	Plymouth Savings Bank, .	2,033	358,973	47	1,625	93,503	26	1,001	614	-	-
91†	Plymouth Savings Bank, .	6,384	1,696,856	55	2,763	244,660	00	-	-	-	-
93*	Salisbury Savings Bank, .	4,170	1,025,640	89	558	105,640	00	254	304	286	272
98*	Salem Five Cent Savings Bank, .	5,611	1,341,469	12	5,466	411,431	14	3,198	2,268	-	-
99	Salem Savings Bank, .	14,940	4,919,837	00	12,208	943,375	00	5,425	6,783 ³	5,080	7,128
102	Provincetown Savings Bank, .	1,577	475,286	87	983	122,788	24	721	262	730	253
103†	Shelburne Falls Savings Bank, .	2,383	479,109	06	1,842	158,759	52	-	-	-	-
104 ¹	Southbridge Savings Bank, .	2,069	601,676	75	1,403	119,859	87	1,025	1,044	1,671	398
106 ¹	South Boston Savings Bank, .	3,650	762,543	51	8,845	629,719	00	1,001	629	922	708
108	South Weymouth Savings Bank, .	519	166,004	95	527	67,646	39	285	234	467	52
109†	Springfield Savings Bank, .	4,720	1,033,061	43	3,910	441,633	85	2,550	2,195	-	-
110	Springfield Institution for Savings, .	12,733	4,691,835	56	14,273	1,694,357	03	6,510	6,223	9,733	3,000
117†	Waltham Savings Bank, .	3,968	895,749	00	4,635	490,248	00	2,000	1,968	-	-
118†	Ware Savings Bank, .	3,534	1,354,084	09	2,550	320,055	22	1,782	1,752	-	-
119	Wareham Savings Bank, .	1,258	413,951	00	904	89,102	00	703	555	1,142	116
123*	Wellfleet Savings Bank, .	788	190,343	00	334	54,230	00	430	358	788	-
126	Westfield Savings Bank, .	2,095	571,755	48	2,230	217,445	93	277	203	-	-

¹ Occupations and yearly deposits not given.³ Three hundred and eight single women; 484 married; 140 widows.² Seventy-two widows.

TABLE 1.—*Number and Amount of Deposits, Different Depositors, Sex, Nationality, etc.*—Concluded.

No. of Blank.	BANK.	No. of different Depositors.	Amount of Deposits.	No. of Deposits last 12 months.	Amount of Deposits.	SEX.		NATIONALITY.	
						Males.	Females.	Native.	Foreign.
127	Weymouth Savings Bank, . . .	2,236	\$640,814 52	1,176	\$107,064 39	1,560	576	2,035	201
129†	Woburn Savings Bank, . . .	1,912	257,589 86	2,346	75,098 17	-	-	-	-
130†	Worcester Savings Bank, . . .	14,420	4,458,148 72	9,566	884,892 84	-	-	-	-
131†	Worcester Five Cent Savings Bank, .	4,933	853,467 50	4,910	272,039 10	-	-	-	-
132†	Worcester Savings Bank, . . .	16,099	2,072,879 65	4,051	508,808 49	-	-	-	-
138	Uxbridge Savings Bank, . . .	461	70,575 27	823	70,575 27	259	202	360	101

NOTE.—The returns marked by an asterisk (*) were very full; those marked with a dagger (†) very incomplete; the remaining returns were very fair. In addition to these returns blanks were received from the following-named towns, so incomplete that they could not be tabulated: Abington, Attleborough, Harwich, Fitchburg, Georgetown, Springfield, Northampton, North Brookfield, and Peabody. An incomplete return was also received from the Boston Five Cent Savings Bank.

Totals and Averages to Table 1.

Total number of returns capable of tabulation,	56
“ “ of different Depositors, 53 returns,	221,754
“ amount of deposits in same, \$64,813,093 00	
Average amount to each depositor,	292 27
“ number of deposits last twelve months, 56 returns,	222,591
“ amount of same, \$21,176,623 05	
“ amount deposited during past year,	95 13
Forty-three returns, having 139,664 depositors, give males, . .	66,338
“ “ “ “ “ “ females,.	51,408
“ “ “ “ “ “ sex not designated,	21,918
Twenty-four returns, having 85,925 depositors, give natives, . .	50,579
“ “ “ “ “ “ foreign,.	19,377
“ “ “ “ “ “ national-ity not designated,	15,969

TABLE 2.—Occupations of Depositors.

NUMBER OF BLANK.	Farmers.	Farm Laborers.	Seamen.	Teamsters.	Boot and Shoe-makers.	Factory operatives, Male.	Factory operatives, Female.	Minors.	Mechanics.	Laborers.	Miscellaneous Em- ployments.	Housekeepers.	Domestics.	Shop Girls.	Clerks, Male.	Clerks, Female.	Overseers and Fore- men.	Traders.	Builders.	Miscellaneous.	Trust Accounts.	Total No. of Occu- pations given.	
7, .	68	-	196	5	-	-	-	316	61	31	-	-	3	-	12	-	-	15	-	554 ¹	71	1,332	
10, .	43	-	20	9	36	54	18	265	32	34	106	5	15	2	21	-	-	22	4	4	281	11	978
27, ² .	25	46	12	6	22	-	-	20	35	26	50	31	3	1	-	-	-	4	-	-	46	-	327
32, .	33	8	72	31	12	-	-	202	1,325	370	-	-	68	27	-	-	-	16	4	4	205	385	2,758
49, .	6	-	-	-	16	-	-	30	2	-	6	11	-	6	2	-	2	2	-	-	-	3	86
58, .	11	3	65	-	-	-	-	104	19	6	8	1	4	1	13	1	-	10	2	2	143	22	413
79, .	13	5	51	10	15	-	-	160	41	3	54	9	28	32	6	6	2	16	1	1	91	129	672
85, ³ .	50	50	-	50	200	-	-	400	200	500	-	-	100	150	-	-	25	50	20	20	225	30	2,350
86, ⁴ .	39	3	-	-	-	-	-	206	698	84	-	407	67	102	-	-	-	19	-	-	31	4	1,660
93, .	24	50	5	10	35	72	58	40	5	11	15	12	11	12	6	7	5	6	4	170	-	558	
98, .	50	-	8	10	58	26	-	370	92	10	216	-	24	-	12	-	2	2	-	-	54	-	934
99, ⁵ .	116	-	35	20	119	14	-	229	185	81	62	484	14	-	52	-	3	63	1	1	58	-	2,187
102, .	20	-	227	-	-	-	-	77	21	7	-	-	-	-	15	-	-	14	-	-	30	-	411
106, ² .	9	-	-	1,630	6	-	-	-	415	107	-	-	58	1	41	3	-	3	4	4	-	248	2,525
108, .	10	-	-	4	57	-	-	71	1	10	2	5	4	3	2	2	1	3	2	2	87	3	267

119, .	.	146	-	60	-	-	-	184	-	301	62	40	27	-	-	-	19	-	7	23	-	-	-	869
123, .	.	8	2	98	5	-	-	-	-	150	12	23	5	5	18	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	6	334
126, .	.	60	-	1	1	1	57	41	-	118	19	65	29	-	-	6	4	-	-	-	-	-	45	480
138, .	.	43	15	-	-	-	36	28	-	178	14	13	46	70	12	1	8	-	11	5	-	-	-	480
227, .	.	12	4	-	3	2	22	36	-	26	27	35	15	15	10	2	9	-	2	6	-	4	3	233
55, .	.	450	-	50	150	200	100	-	-	855	1,500	250	-	-	200	-	500	-	50	155	50	7,067	-	11,577
54, .	.	55	-	-	6	5	190	176	-	107	22	79	109	119	20	-	10	2	4	7	33	6	-	950

¹ Five hundred and eighteen of these are females.

² An approximate estimate.

³ This return gives 250 factory operatives and 50 clerks not subdivided.

⁴ See extract from Letter.

⁵ This return gives the occupations in detail on an extra sheet. In addition to those classified, there remain Trustees, and occupations unknown, 177; single women, 308; widows, 140; aged persons, 15; societies, 11. These are new depositors from Aug. 18, 1870, to Aug. 18, 1871.

⁶ This return gives farmers and farm-laborers together, and makes no distinction between housekeepers and domestics. They are all new depositors of the last twelve months.

⁷ Twelve in trust for minors. The occupations given are of those who opened new accounts.

Totals and Averages to Table 2. (22 Returns.)

Total number of farmers,	1,291
“ “ farm-laborers,	186
“ “ seamen,	900
“ “ teamsters,	1,950
“ “ boot and shoemakers,	784
“ “ factory operatives—males,	755
“ “ factory operatives—females,	351
“ “ factory operatives, sex not designated,	250
“ “ minors,	4,225
“ “ mechanics,	4,788
“ “ laborers,	1,785
“ “ miscellaneous employments,	750
“ “ housekeepers,	1,174
“ “ (whether housekeepers or domestics) not designated,	33
“ “ domestics,	659
“ “ shop girls,	346
“ “ clerks and accountants—males,	732
“ “ clerks and accountants—females,	21
“ “ clerks (sex not designated),	50
“ “ overseers and foremen,	114
“ “ traders,	443
“ “ builders,	125
“ “ miscellaneous (not wage-laborers),	8,968
“ “ trust accounts,	1,044
“ “ trustees and occupations unknown,	177
“ “ single women,	308
“ “ widows,	140
“ “ aged persons,	15
“ “ societies,	11
Total,	32,381
Total wage-labor depositors,	18,960
“ housekeepers, depositors,	1,207
“ trust accounts,	1,232
“ other depositors (not wage-laborers),	10,982
Total,	32,381

The total number of deposits in these 22 Banks, for the past year was 83,615. Taking the number of Depositors as 32,381, it would make an average of about two and a half deposits per year to each Depositor. The amount deposited was \$8,348,231.06, an average of \$99.84 to each deposit, or \$249.60 to each Depositor.

As two of the above banks, Nos. 55 and 119, do not give the details of their deposits, and as the number of deposits in Nos. 32-86-93-102-106-108, in Table 1, do not agree with the deposits in Table 3, we base the following computation on the remaining 14.

The disagreement of the above returns in the two Tables, is doubtless caused by the respondents entering in one place, the number of new accounts opened during the past year, and in the other the total number of deposits during the year.

The number of Deposits in 14 of these Banks for the past year, according to Table 1, is 34,602. The amount of the same is \$3,043,460.33. Table 3 shows that 2,210 of these deposits were in sums of and exceeding \$300 each, the average of such deposits being, according to the Bank Commissioner's Report of 1870, \$573.33. Calling it an average of \$500, this class of deposits would amount to \$1,105,000. Subtracting this from the total amount, we have \$1,938,460.33 as the amount of deposits in sums less than \$300 giving an average of \$59.84 to each of the 32,392 deposits, or \$149.50 to each Depositor of sums less than \$300. 9,921 deposits were made in sums between \$50 and \$300. These deposits averaged \$120.90 each, amounting to \$1,199,475 leaving \$738,985.33 the amount of deposits in sums of \$50 and less. The number of such deposits was 22,471, giving an average to each deposit of \$32.88. The number of wage-labor depositors in these same banks, was 7,867, showing the average number of deposits to be $2\frac{4}{5}$ per year or \$92.04 to each depositor. According to the returns of these Banks, 65 per cent. of these deposits amount to 25 per cent. of the total sum deposited, that is the *wage-labor depositors* hold about 25 per cent. of the amount deposited during the past year.

If the average deposits of and exceeding \$300 were that of the average given in the Commissioner's Report, \$578.73, the average deposit of the wage-laborers would be \$25.63, and their annual deposits would be \$71.74 instead of \$92.04.

TABLE 3.—Number of Deposits¹ between \$1.00 and \$1,000.00.

NUMBER OF BLANK.	Under \$1.	\$1 to \$2.	\$2 to \$3.	\$3 to \$5.	\$5 to \$8.	\$8 to \$10.	\$10 to \$12.	\$12 to \$15.	\$15 to \$20.	\$20 to \$25.	\$25 to \$50.	\$50 to \$100.	\$100 to \$200.	\$200 to \$300.	\$300 to \$500.	\$500 to \$1,000.
2,.	94	113	70	56	132	13	82	16	61	44	167	152	167	61	93	
7,.	-	17	24	21	110	10	53	17	36	50	201	245	259	113	176	
8,.	4	20	18	24	40	5	26	10	22	42	101	110	117	58	90	
10,.	23	77	43	43	113	73	8	6	51	91	163	242	239	100	111	
13,.	12	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
18,.	-	42	54	45	241	23	203	48	108	160	443	552	453	145	189	
22,.	-	25	13	68	26	123	7	62	134	101	363	304	108	42	67	
25,.	-	65	9	207	112	557	83	367	805	634	2,007	1,163	517	240	402	
27,.	-	-	4	4	25	21	21	3	8	29	55	98	92	35	41	
28,.	-	71	54	45	103	10	78	12	45	74	236	277	200	69	118	
29,.	-	15	20	12	151	25	153	39	88	148	321	362	283	58	71	
32,.	-	219	155	248	907	119	1,025	199	426	864	1,708	1,625	1,113	345	486	
49,.	2	1	1	4	10	4	2	3	2	2	8	20	11	2	5	
53,.	-	18	11	137	40	116	24	44	89	100	293	280	184	59	111	
54,.	-	121	48	179	82	294	60	224	382	333	1,004	695	405	122	258	
58,.	1	47	19	80	23	71	14	28	40	62	180	159	122	74	141	
60,.	-	82	50	107	265	29	435	69	239	472	1,095	1,115	832	195	378	
69,.	642	1,251	254	926	357	951	180	495	798	740	1,907	1,299	581	218	392	
72,.	-	13	15	20	81	7	68	12	41	82	203	337	309	121	221	
73,.	-	36	9	95	51	239	41	177	423	359	1,091	767	397	151	336	
79,.	12	46	25	26	125	11	92	27	44	80	200	217	170	53	101	
85,.	-	-	-	-	-	616	-	-	-	-	-	479	-	-	175	
86,.	5	54	24	81	47	114	20	50	93	115	225	376	175	56	98	
89,.	69	81	126	517	69	680	145	473	828	2,289	2,384	1,713	547	710	83	
93,.	-	120	150	220	230	230	239	225	215	235	240	300	320	210	105	

98.	119	460	287	201	555	67	364	63	165	426	765	796	649	236	313
99.	—	380	220	1,010	478	1,330	260	640	1,230	740	2,580	1,750	740	320	530
102.	59	11	18	73	4	25	21	11	27	25	70	122	78	49	60
104.	—	46	20	75	38	95	16	52	92	111	345	268	123	43	79
106.	100	501	287	267	755	154	656	144	297	479	895	639	376	99	96
108.	—	18	9	17	24	2	33	5	22	21	66	82	93	35	45
109.	96	359	170	184	293	134	270	97	141	153	485	563	388	157	420
110.	156	348	254	212	751	101	873	167	535	1,002	2,691	2,764	2,263	745	1,501
118.	2	28	25	26	146	12	127	22	65	135	460	582	592	166	281
123.	—	—	7	—	27	8	23	14	15	10	40	45	55	40	50
126.	51	111	55	153	70	157	26	112	138	151	405	368	183	83	167
127.	—	46	23	90	27	75	18	35	117	65	244	172	149	46	69
129.	504	310	196	209	116	73	480	20	42	65	356	204	179	47	60
138.	43	53	26	65	55	40	27	9	26	51	103	111	94	43	75

¹ Office Nos. 10, 32, 49, 54, 85, 86, 102, 106, 108 and 138, return an aggregate of 3,755 deposits in this table less than in Table 1, showing that this number of deposits was not accounted for. If these were added to the wage labor deposits, they would not materially increase the deposit.

² From \$2 to \$9, inclusive, 127; from \$10 to \$99, inclusive, 675; from \$100 to \$500, inclusive, 47; from \$500 to \$1,000, inclusive, 19.

³ From \$20 to \$50, 530; from \$100 to \$300, 548.

Totals and Averages of Table 3.

	No. of Deposits.	Average.	Amount.
Under \$1,	1,994	\$1 00	\$1,994 00
Between \$1 and \$2,	5,242	1 50	7,863 00
“ 2 and 3,	2,793	2 50	6,982 50
“ 3 and 5,	5,747	4 00	22,988 00
“ 2 and 9,	127*	5 50	698 50
“ 5 and 8,	6,679	6 50	43,393 50
“ 8 and 10,	6,614	9 00	59,526 00
“ 10 and 12,	6,253	11 00	68,783 00
“ 12 and 15,	3,997	13 50	53,959 50
“ 15 and 20,	7,890	17 50	138,075 00
“ 20 and 25,	10,640	22 50	239,400 00
“ 20 and 50,	530*	35 00	18,550 00
“ 25 and 50,	24,300	37 50	911,250 00
“ 10 and 99,	675*	54 50	36,787 50
Between \$1 and \$50,	83,481	\$19 29	\$1,610,250 50
Between \$50 and \$100,	21,353	\$75 00	\$1,601,475 00
“ 100 and 200,	13,568	150 00	2,035,200 00
“ 100 and 300,	548*	200 00	109,600 00
“ 200 and 300,	5,346	250 00	1,336,500 00
“ 100 and 500,	47*	300 00	14,100 00
“ 300 and 1,000,	7,994	550 00	4,396,700 00
“ 500 and 1,000,	19*	750 00	14,250 00
Between \$50 and \$1,000,	48,875	\$194 53	\$9,507,825 00

Total amount of deposits last year in these 39 Banks, . . . \$12,208,465 86

Number of deposits of and exceeding \$300, 8,013; ave. \$500, 4,006,500 00

Amount of deposits under \$300, \$8,201,965 86

Number of deposits under \$300, 124,515

Average amount of deposit of same, \$65 87

The total number of deposits in these 39 Banks, in the twelve months given, is 132,356. From returns of the same Banks, in Table No. 1, the total number of deposits given is 132,586,—a discrepancy of 230. As the number of deposits over \$50 are all given, and some of the smaller deposits are not given, in the following calculation, we use the number of deposits in Table 1.

From the totals and averages of Table 3, it will be seen that 83,481 deposits, of sums of \$50 and under, amounting to

* See foot-notes 2d and 3d to Table 3.

\$1,610,250.50, give an average to each deposit of \$19.29; and that 48,875 deposits, amounting to \$9,507,825 give an average to each deposit of \$194.53. The average deposit under \$300, according to this estimate, is \$58.84. By reference to page 318, it will be seen that the average derived from the Commissioner's Report is \$55.20, a difference of \$1.36 to each depositor. Multiplying this difference by the number of depositors under \$300, we have \$169,042.56. If this whole sum were added to the deposits under \$50 it would make the total amount of deposits less than \$50, \$1,779,298.06, an average of \$21.31 to each deposit. Our average deposit, of and exceeding \$300, is \$549.01, being \$24.32 less than that on the page referred to above. Multiplying this difference by the number of depositors of and exceeding \$300, we have \$196,019.20. Adding this to the deposits over \$50, we have \$9,703,844.20, as the amount of 48,875 deposits, an average of \$198.54 to each deposit.

By this table it appears that 83,481 wage-labor deposits were made in the Banks; the number of depositors making them cannot be correctly given, but according to Table No. 2, it may be stated as 33,392.

It may be claimed that the deposits between \$50 and \$100 should be counted with this class, as this would include the exceptional cases, and might counterbalance the deposits of the few who, from some cause, such as removal from another State, inheritance, etc., could deposit such a sum.

If we allowed this, we then have 104,834 deposits of \$3,211,725.50 or \$30.63 to each deposit,—to 27,522 deposits of \$8,706,750.00 or \$316.35 to each deposit, showing, by this calculation, that these immense sums credited to labor, belong, as we have before stated, to profits upon labor, or its results.

Even carrying this sum of possible wage deposit to \$300, the statement holds good, as will be seen by the following computation, based upon the Report of the Bank Commissioners, for 1870.

From this Report we learn that the number of deposits of and exceeding \$300, was 37,249. The amount of the same, \$21,356,204.33, giving a deposit of \$573.33 to each.

The number of deposits, during the same year, were 506,873. The amount of the same was \$47,281,303.70. Deducting the number of deposits of those exceeding \$300, and the amount

of the same from those figures, we have 469,624 deposits, amounting to \$25,925,099.37, giving an average of \$55.20 to each deposit; showing that $\frac{3}{7}$ ths of the amount of the deposits belong to parties who are able to deposit more than \$500 at one time, and that the deposits of $\frac{1\frac{3}{4}}{14}$ ths of the whole number of deposits, amounted to but little more than the deposits of the remaining $\frac{1}{14}$ th.

A comparison of the deposits of 1869-70 shows that while the increase in deposits was, during that year, about 5 per cent, the increase in deposits of \$300 and over (or more truly \$500 and over), was about 32 per cent.

Of these deposits exceeding \$300,—12,315, amounting to \$7,139,557.84 are held in Boston,—the average deposit being \$579.74, so that it appears that not the Boston Banks alone are the receptacles of the deposits of the wealthy, but that the Country Savings Banks are as largely used by the same class.

TABLE 4.—Number of Yearly Depositors between \$5 and \$1,000.

NUMBER OF BLANK.											\$5 to \$10.	\$10 to \$20.	\$20 to \$30.	\$30 to \$50.	\$50 to \$75.	\$75 to \$100.	\$100 to \$200.	\$200 to \$300.	\$300 to \$500.	\$500 to \$750.	\$750 to \$1,000.
8,	27	25	37	30	45	41	79	38	35	33	27
10,	210	105	52	131	53	92	236	118	78	170	65
18,	190	132	98	126	142	118	243	120	120	41	27
22,	23	33	29	69	55	114	119	49	54	18	20
29,	154	78	76	124	84	145	173	67	43	15	15
49,	4	6	4	3	10	5	10	-	2	3	1
58,	103	32	45	80	36	62	74	60	66	36	63
79,	51	54	53	53	63	25	89	41	58	37	23
86,	124	151	117	113	132	66	310	175	231	143	112
93,	360	345	355	370	345	360	275	320	210	25	15
98,	287	269	196	182	255	140	461	221	271	127	59
108,	8	5	8	10	9	20	25	8	3	-	-
123,	70	79	62	30	152	170	86	54	47	20	15
127,	50	40	27	56	33	65	68	20	9	5	-
138,	70	52	43	22	26	29	60	43	32	31	28

Totals and Averages of Table 4—(Fifteen Returns).

	No. of Depositors.	Average.	Amount.
Between \$5 and \$10,	1,731	\$7 50	\$12,982 50
“ 10 and 20,	1,406	15 00	21,090 00
“ 20 and 30,	1,202	25 00	30,050 00
“ 30 and 50,	1,399	40 00	55,960 00
Between \$5 and \$50,	5,738	\$20 92 ¹	\$120,082 50
Between \$50 and \$75,	1,440	\$62 50	\$90,000 00
“ 75 and 100,	1,452	87 50	127,050 00
Between \$50 and \$100,	2,892	\$75 05	\$217,050 00
Between \$100 and \$200,	2,308	\$150 00	\$346,200 00
200 and 300,	1,334	250 00	333,500 00
Between \$100 and \$300,	3,642	\$186 62	\$679,700 00
Between \$300 and \$500,	1,259	\$400 00	\$503,600 00
500 and 750,	704	625 00	440,000 00
750 and 1,000,	470	875 00	411,250 00
Between \$300 and \$1,000,	2,433	\$556 86	\$1,354,850 00
Total number of depositors,			14,705
Estimated amount of deposits,			\$2,371,682 50
Number of depositors, under \$300,			12,272
Amount of same,			\$1,016,832 50
Number of depositors of and over \$300,			2,433
Amount of same,			\$1,354,850 00

By this it appears that six-sevenths of the depositors own less than one-half the deposits, the remaining seventh owning \$338,017.50, more than the six-sevenths own.

In this calculation, we have allowed the workmen's yearly deposits to amount to \$300; but this sum is *greatly in excess of the possibility of ninety-nine per cent. of the working classes.*

This is proven by the average length of time it takes the small depositor to reach \$1,000. Office No. 99 says:—

“ We have many accounts, that, commencing with small deposits, have reached the maximum sum of \$1,000 each. Taking the

¹ Adding those under \$5 would bring this average to nearly \$15.

whole number of this class, I find by actual computation, that the average time employed in saving \$1,000, is a fraction over twelve years. Of a large number the time was fifteen years.*

Withdrawals.

Number of withdrawals, in months containing the largest number thereof,	15,951
In sums of \$10 and under,	1,617
“ of from \$20 to \$30,	3,902
“ “ \$30 to \$50,	3,990
“ “ \$50 to \$100,	2,123
“ “ \$100 to \$300,	2,448
“ “ \$300 to \$1,000,	1,871

Number of withdrawals, in months containing the smallest number,	3,432
In sums of \$10 and under,	663
“ of from \$10 to \$20,	521
“ “ \$20 to \$30,	576
“ “ \$50 to \$100,	807
“ “ \$100 to \$300,	599
“ “ \$300 to \$1,000,	266

Loans.

Forty-seven banks return the following number of loans in sums of and under \$500, to sums of and over \$5,000:—

Number of loans of or under \$500,	3,399
“ “ between \$500 and \$1,000,	3,298
“ “ “ \$1,000 and \$2,000,	3,237
“ “ “ \$2,000 and \$3,000,	2,216
“ “ “ \$3,000 and \$5,000,	2,087
“ “ over \$5,000,	1,223
Amount of deposits in same banks,	\$53,433,825 30

Taking the loans of sums under \$3,000 as loans to wage-laborers, would not give, at the highest average, more than one-fourth of the total amount thus deposited to the use of the wage-laborer.

In the Report of the Commissioners, for 1861, the history of

* To accumulate \$1,000 in 12 years, compounded annuities, would require a yearly deposit of \$55.90, and in 15 years of \$39.79.

withdrawals in Great Britain is given, "illustrative," they say, "of the important service which Savings Banks render to the laboring classes in periods of idleness or distress."

"In the seventeen years from 1841 to 1857, inclusive, the amount withdrawn by depositors exceeded the amount deposited by \$3,114,136; yet, in spite of this, by the cumulative power of compound interest, the aggregate deposits increased in the same period \$10,718,751. In nine out of the seventeen years, the withdrawals exceeded the deposits; and in the years 1847 and 1848, which were marked by great commercial distress in England, the excess of withdrawals over deposits was more than five millions of pounds sterling (£5,000,000).

"These figures show how much more frequently in Great Britain, than in our own State, the annual earnings of the poor prove inadequate to their subsistence, and how much oftener they are forced to rely on their accumulated savings. Our own returns do not state the amount of withdrawals, but there is no doubt that with us, even, *they sometimes exceed the deposits*. This was probably the case in 1857, when the yearly gain was only \$899,215,—a sum considerably less than the interest upon the deposits of 1856. Nearly a million dollars must have been withdrawn more than was deposited, in that disastrous year. In New York, the excess of withdrawals was more than \$1,700,000."

This report contained also the following recommendation:—

"That Savings Banks be required, either at stated intervals, or at the special call of the Legislature, to make return of their depositors by classes, according to the amounts standing to their credit. A special return might also give much useful information, as to sex, age (whether minors or adults), nationality, and occupation. Such information has always a high statistical value."

The Lynn Five Cents Savings Bank (No. 69) returns a description of their loans as follows:—

Number of loans of about \$100,	4
" " " \$200,	8
" " " \$300,	7
" " " \$400,	15
" " " \$500,	20

Number of loans of about \$600,	25
“ “ “ \$700,	11
“ “ “ \$800,	19
“ “ “ \$900,	8
“ “ “ \$1,000,	31
“ “ “ \$1,200,	22
“ “ “ \$1,300,	6
“ “ “ \$1,400,	8
“ “ “ \$1,500,	18
“ “ “ \$1,600,	9
“ “ “ \$1,700,	4
“ “ “ \$1,800,	3
“ “ “ \$2,500,	40
“ “ “ \$3,000,	14
“ “ “ \$5,000,	20
“ “ “ \$7,000,	5
“ “ “ \$10,000,	2

Personal loans \$17,301.96, mostly to Churches and Parishes of various denominations. Mortgages—\$568,960, out of total deposits of \$1,143,898.38.

“Our loans on Mortgage are almost entirely to our own residents, and very largely to workmen in shoe factories. We lend freely to the laboring people in small sums.”

Additional Returns.

The returns from 40 banks give the number of depositors of sums less than \$50, on last dividend day, as	47,388
Average percentage of loans on personal security,	17 $\frac{2}{3}$
Number of depositors non-residents of State,	4,767
Number of depositors non-residents of City or Town,	32,277
Number of Trust accounts deposited for Societies, —37 returns,	669
Amount of same,	\$424,281 71
Total number of depositors in these 40 Banks,	144,794
Number of depositors in sums under \$50,	47,388
Number of depositors in sums of \$50 and over,	97,406
Total amount of deposits in these Banks,\$44,730,176 79

In addition to the preceding tables, we present the following extracts from Blanks.

To the question "Does the Treasurer of your Bank hold any position in a National Bank?" 31 answer no—19, yes.

The general Banking Hours seem to be from 9 to 12 A.M., and from 1 to 4 P.M. 13 report open "only in the forenoon," and two "only two hours in the afternoon," while one reports "from 7 A.M. till 7 P.M." 10 Banks report "open one or two evenings a week, generally until 8 o'clock," some holding open until 9 o'clock. Two close earlier on Saturdays.

The following extracts from Reports of Commissioners are in place, in this connection:—

"While in many places the Banking hours present all the accommodation needed, there are others, the centres of a large laboring population, closely confined by their occupation every hour when the banks are open, where they do not present such facilities as would be most likely to meet the general wants and convenience.

"Persons of thrift and economical habits find some way to make their deposits, even if so engaged in banking hours that they cannot do it personally; but there is a class in every large community which will practice these habits only under the most favorable circumstances, and it would seem that to such persons Savings Banks ought to hold out all practicable facilities and inducements to become depositors."

The business occupations of the three classes borrowing the largest aggregate amount, are as follows: Traders 29, Manufacturers 21, Mechanics 21. In addition to these, are reported Farmers 15, Builders 5, Laborers 5, all others 3.

To the question, Do small loans increase or diminish? 9 report—diminish—9 that they remain about the same—29 that they increase.

The Boston Five Cents Savings Bank returns as follows:—

The number of accounts now open with depositors is 57,163, and the whole amount now standing to their credit \$9,423,286.16; showing an increase in the number of depositors, during the last year, of 2,429; and in deposits of \$673,763.63; making an average sum due each depositor of \$164.84.

The number who have on deposit less than \$50 is 31,122; \$50, and less than \$100, is 5,994; \$100 and less than \$500, is 12,900; \$500 to \$1,000, inclusive, is 7,147.

Total number of resident depositors is 37,790 ; non-residents, 19,373 ; males, 32,485 ; females, 24,678 ; Americans, 45,066 ; foreigners, 12,097 ; artists and mechanics, 9,394 ; clerks and agents, 4,410 ; laborers, 2,122 ; soldiers, 350 ; merchants and traders, 1,653 ; servants and waiters, 1,906 ; public and professional men, 1,377 ; seamen, 511 ; women, children, and all whose occupation is unknown, 35,440.

Accompanying Office No. 2 was an account of Depositors, the account having been made up in January, 1871, for the year ending at that date, giving the number of persons and amount of deposits at that time, from which we obtain the following results :—

15 persons with deposits of \$1,000,	\$15,000 00
8 persons with deposits of \$900,	7,200 00
15 persons with deposits of \$800,	12,000 00
11 persons with deposits of \$700,	7,700 00
12 persons with deposits of \$600,	7,200 00
29 persons with deposits of \$500,	14,500 00
63 persons with deposits of \$400,	25,200 00
81 persons with deposits of \$300,	24,300 00
93 persons with deposits of \$200,	18,600 00
163 persons with deposits of \$100,	16,300 00
740 less than \$100, average \$74.45,	55,083 00
<hr/>	
1,230 Depositors owning,	\$203,083 00
Average to each Depositor, \$165.11.	

As the average amount of the deposit held by the 740 depositors, in sums less than \$100, is not given, we obtained the average from Table 1, by dividing the total amount deposited by the number of depositors and multiplying that product by the number of depositors here given. This gives \$203,085.30, as the deposits of 1,230 depositors, and as \$148,000 are held by those having \$100 and over, the remainder, \$55,085.30, is the deposit of the 740 depositors under \$100. From this, we obtain the average of \$74.45. So that 234 depositors, whose deposits amount to and exceed \$300, own \$113,100, an average of \$483.33 to each depositor ; and 996 depositors, whose deposits amount to less than \$300, own \$89,983, an average of \$90.35 to each depositor.

In this Bank, about $\frac{1}{5}$ th of the depositors own about $\frac{11}{20}$ ths of the amount deposited, the remaining $\frac{4}{5}$ ths owning but $\frac{9}{20}$ ths.

Of the 15 persons, whose deposits amount to \$1,000, these facts are given:—

A Farmer made nine deposits, amounting with interest, in five years, to	\$1,000
A Widow made five deposits, amounting with interest, in four years, to	1,000
A Carpenter made nine deposits, amounting with interest, in four years, to	1,000
A Farmer made six deposits, amounting with interest, in three years, to	1,000
A Farmer made six deposits, amounting with interest, in two years, to	1,000
A Farmer made eight deposits, amounting with interest, in two years, to	1,000
A Mechanic made five deposits, amounting with interest, in two years, to	1,000
A Farmer made four deposits, amounting with interest, in two years,	1,000
A Clergyman made two deposits, amounting with interest, in two years, to	1,000
A Trader made one deposit,	1,000
A Farmer's Wife made one deposit,	1,000
A Farmer made one deposit,	1,000
A Farmer's Wife made one deposit,	1,000
A Mechanic made one deposit,	1,000
An Administrator and Guardian made one deposit,	1,000

The Carpenters and Mechanics included in this number may or may not be wage-laborers. The terms, Mechanic, Carpenter, etc., are often used to represent employers in these trades as well as employes. The average deposit of the Carpenter would not exceed \$100.00 ; the mechanics' five deposits would not exceed \$200.00.

Lowell Five Cents Savings Bank.

From an article published in the "Daily Citizen and News," we learn that "the deposits in the above named Bank, for the week ending Jan. 7th, 1871, amounted to \$59,654. The number of new accounts opened was one hundred and fifty. The

largest number of deposits, on these accounts, was 'in trust' chiefly for minors, and in small amounts; next by housekeepers and operatives, an equal number of each; then farmers, minors, domestics and laborers. The whole number of depositors for the week was six hundred and sixty-two. Seventy-nine persons deposited over \$500 each. Four hundred and seventy-five deposited under \$100, down to 10 cents."

This statement was supposed to strengthen the idea that the vast sums deposited in our Savings Banks, were the deposits of the working classes. An examination of these figures will show that such is not the case. The total amount deposited was \$59,654. The number of depositors 662, and 29 of these deposited in sums of \$500 and over. At the lowest figure (\$500) this amount would be \$14,500. There were also 475, who deposited under \$100 down to 10 cents. This leaves 158, who must have deposited in sums between \$100 and \$500. At \$200 each, it would give \$31,600 as the amount of their deposits, leaving \$13,554 as the deposits of 475 depositors, being an average of \$28.53 to each depositor; showing that $\frac{3}{10}$ ths of the depositors of that week deposited $\frac{8}{10}$ ths of the total amount.

This article gives the whole number of deposits for the year 1860 as 3,004, divided as follows:—"The number, who deposited over \$300, was 151, between \$300 and \$100, 239, between \$100 and \$50, 349, between \$50 and \$1, 1823; under \$1, 432.

For 1870, the whole number of depositors was 8,116, divided as follows:—"The number, who deposited over \$300, was 488, between \$300 and \$100, 362, between \$100 and \$50, 980, between \$50 and \$1, 5,882, under \$1, 474. Of those who deposited under \$1, there were 23 who deposited 10 cents and 16 who deposited 5 cents."

The following computations give results similar to the preceding. For 1860, the number of depositors was 3,004; 10 of whom were not accounted for in the above division:—

The number who deposited over \$300, 151; average, \$500;	
amounting to	\$75,500 00
The number who deposited between \$300 and \$100, 239; average, \$200; amounting to	47,800 00
The number who deposited between \$100 and \$50, 349; average, \$75; amounting to	26,175 00

The number who deposited between \$50 and \$1.00, 1,823; average, \$25; amounting to	\$45,575 00
The number who deposited under \$1, 432; average, 50 cts.; amounting to	216 00
Estimated amount,	\$195,266 00
Number of depositors, 2,994.	

The amount deposited by the remaining 10 is not stated. If added, it would not materially change the result unless the deposits were of large sums. The average deposit above \$50, would be \$202.26, below \$50, \$20.30.

For 1870, the number of Depositors was 8,116; by the division given it is 8,186.

Number who deposited over \$300, 488; average, \$500; amounting to	\$244,000 00
Number who deposited between \$300 and \$100, 362; average, \$200; amounting to	72,400 00
Number who deposited between \$100 and \$50, 980; average, \$75; amounting to	73,500 00
Number who deposited between \$50 and \$1.00, 5,882; average, \$25; amounting to	147,050 00
Number who deposited under \$1.00, 474; average, 50 cts.; amounting to	237 00
Estimated amount,	\$537,187 00
Number of depositors, 8,186.	

Number of depositors, whose deposits exceed \$50, is 1,830. Amount of same \$389,900: an average to each depositor of \$213.06.

Number of depositors, whose deposits are less than \$50, is 6,356. Amount of same \$147,287: an average to each depositor of \$23.17. As will be seen by these figures, less than one-fourth of the depositors own nearly three-fourths of the deposits.

The Report of this Bank to the Commissioner for 1870, gives the total number of deposits as 8,580,—394 more than that contained in the published statement. The amounts \$656,054.52—being \$88,732 more than the amount deposited by the above. Of this latter amount, \$17,987 is chargeable to the depositors of over \$300; our average being \$37 lower than that given in the Report.

The remaining \$70,745 is doubtless chargeable to the depositors of amounts above \$50, as the article referred to states, that of those depositing less than \$1, there were twenty-three, who deposited 10 cents, and sixteen, who deposited 5 cents; and, because the average deposits between \$50 and \$1, are doubtless higher than the facts would warrant. Even if these were added, it would make the amount owned by the 6,356 depositors, only \$218,032,—being, then, \$62,868 less than that owned by the 1,830 depositors.

An examination of five pages in deposit book No. 7, for April 1, 1871, gives the following results:—

Number of depositors of \$1 and under, 24; average, \$1; amounting to (see page 330, 2d paragraph),	\$24 00
Number of depositors of \$3 and under, 18; average, \$3; amounting to	54 00
Number of depositors of \$5 and under, 10; average, \$5; amounting to	50 00
Number of depositors of \$10 and under, 12; average, \$10; amounting to	120 00
Number of depositors of \$25 and under, 30; average, \$25; amounting to	750 00
Number of depositors of \$50 and under, 35; average, \$50; amounting to	1,750 00
Total amount,	<u>\$2,748 00</u>

Total number of depositors of \$50 and under, 129; average to each depositor of \$21.30.

Number of depositors of \$50 and over, 18; average, \$50; amounting to (see page 330, 2d paragraph),	\$900 00
Number of depositors of \$100 and over, 24; average, \$100; amounting to	2,400 00
Number of depositors of \$200 and over, 4; average, \$200; amounting to	800 00
Number of depositors of \$300 and over, 6; average, \$300; amounting to	1,800 00
Number of depositors of \$500 and over, 8; average, \$500; amounting to	4,000 00
Number of depositors of \$1,000; average, \$1,000; amounting to	1,000 00
Total amount,	<u>\$10,900 00</u>

Total number of depositors of \$50 and over, 61; average to each depositor of \$178 67. (Making the total depositors to be 190).

This shows that two-thirds of the depositors owned one-fifth of the deposits—and one-third owned four-fifths of the deposits, or of every \$100 on deposit, \$80 is the share of one depositor, and \$20 the share of two depositors, being \$10 each.

As will be seen the first column is *above* the average, and the second column is *below* the average. The true average of those above \$50 would bring the total amount up, to at least \$12,000.

An examination of 160 names, in the week having the largest number of new accounts, gives the occupations as follows:—Machinists, 8, Housekeepers 25, Miscellaneous 35, Overseers 2, Operatives 12, Clerks 6, Laborer 1, Printer 1, Dressmaker 1, Bakers 3, Farmers 6, Carpenters 3, Harness maker 2, Tinsmith 1, Painters 2, Coppersmith 1, Blacksmith 1, Shoemaker 1, Moulder 1, Stone Cutter 1, Horse Car Conductor 1, Watchmen 3, Trust Accounts 17 ;—Total 134—26 unknown. Three of these depositors made their mark.—Of 124 depositors in the 1st week of July, 1869, five made their mark. Of 122 in the 1st week of April 1870, three made their mark.

Total number of withdrawals, April 1st, 1871, 80,—with interest, 20 ; *without interest*, 60.

Greenfield Savings Bank.

A brief examination of 193 deposits for April 1871 gave—38 deposits between \$300 and \$1,000,—85 between \$300 and \$50, and 62 under \$50. 8 not given.

120 deposits in September were divided, as follows,—5 between \$1,000 and \$500,—amounting to \$4,300. 5 between \$300 and \$500, 4 of them being in sums of \$500. 55 between \$300 and \$50, and 55 under \$50.

This Bank has but one mortgage out of the county ; 132 loans on real estate, amounting to \$165,000. Most of these loans are made to farmers, next in number of loans being wage laborers.

A letter received at this Office early in last year, but too late to be published in the report of 1871, gives the following:—

Essex Savings Bank.

“LAWRENCE, MASS., Jan. 25, 1871.

“On the 1st of January, 1871, this institution had on deposit \$1,970,493.81. The number of depositors was 6,735. Of this

number 56 per cent. are American, 18 per cent. Irish, 14 per cent. English, 2 per cent. French, 2 per cent. German, 8 per cent. unknown.

“None of our depositors are capitalists. But two of our traders have deposits. Ninety per cent. of the whole number reside in Lawrence; most of the remainder in North Andover and Methuen. About three-fifths of the depositors are females.

“The laboring classes are the owners of over ninety per cent. of our entire deposits. Mill people, mechanics, gardeners, teamsters, common laborers, etc., are the persons with whom we have to do. More than a million of our funds are loaned to our own people in small sums. Our notes range between \$250 and \$24,000. Our mortgage loans average less than \$2,500 each. Yet what is true of this institution, may not be true of all similar ones. Our aim is to make it a blessing to our laboring classes.

“We pay at the rate of six per cent. as we go along, and shall divide the extra in 1872. It will be small.

“During 1870, 9,095 deposits were made. Of these, 7,026 were less than \$50, 1,012 were between \$50 and \$100, 412 were between \$100 and \$300, 645 were over \$300. Of the mortgage loans, 60 per cent. are less than \$2,500, 25 per cent. are between \$2,500 and \$5,000, 10 per cent. are between \$5,000 and \$10,000, 5 per cent. are over \$10,000.

“The large notes are to Lawrence manufacturers. Most of the first class of loans are to widows, operatives, and mechanics; a few to traders; the second class to builders principally.

“I think these statements are correct in the main, and shall be glad to answer any questions you may ask.

“Yours truly,

“JAMES H. EATON, *Treasurer.*”

An examination of these returns similar to that of the Lowell Five Cents Savings Bank, gives the following results:—

Number of deposits over \$300, 645; average, \$500; amounting to	\$322,500 00
Number of deposits between \$300 and \$100, 412; average, \$200; amounting to	82,400 00
Number of deposits between \$100 and \$50, 1,012; average, \$75; amounting to	75,900 00
Total amount,	\$480,800 00
Total number of deposits over \$50, 2,069; average deposit, \$232.38.	
Number of deposits under \$50, 7,026; average, \$25; amounting to	\$175,650 00

Total number of deposits 9,095, so that $\frac{2}{9}$ of the deposits made, amounted to $\frac{5}{7}$ of the total amount; or, in other words, the *smaller number* of deposits comprised the *greater amount* deposited; and therefore $\frac{7}{9}$, or the *greater number* of deposits, comprised but $\frac{2}{7}$, or the *smaller amount*, deposited.

The report of this Bank to the Commissioner for the year, gives 607 deposits exceeding 300. The amount of the same being \$327,749.45, an average of \$539.93 to each deposit. This would make the proportion of the sum owned by others than wage laborers, still larger.

REMARKS.

It is evident from these returns that the great bulk of depositors is from the wage classes, and it is equally evident that the great sums, generally credited to them, *are not the savings of wage-labor*, but are the results of profits upon labor in some form.

If the ordinary and extra dividends of these Banks were added to the average of each depositor, it would not affect this statement. For these dividends did not exceed \$9,000,000 during 1871, and as a large per cent. is withdrawn, the remainder, divided among the whole number of depositors, according to the amount of their deposits, would add but a few dollars to the wage-laborer's investment, and a proportionally greater sum to that of the non-wage laborer.

The rule that we have adopted, in placing the amount of a single deposit of a working man or woman, at \$50 and under, is based upon the fact *that the average wages of this class of citizens will not admit of a larger sum for deposit*. A deposit of \$50 would about represent their average monthly earnings. It may, indeed, be claimed, that the larger part of the depositors are unmarried persons. A gentleman whose attention has been called to this subject, says, that "a large part of the cases of savings among mechanics, are of those who come to their majority during a prosperous period, and remain single six or eight years." But even this class cannot save \$50 out of a month's earnings, after paying their board and other expenses.

A Journeyman Carpenter, whose cost of living is given on page 253—gives in the following statement:—

“I was married at 28; had at that time some \$700 on deposit in the Savings Bank, the result of savings for seven years. The deposits were made weekly and monthly, never exceeding \$25. I deposited in sums of \$5, \$10, \$15, \$20 or \$25.

“A year before I was married, I moved to another town, letting my deposit remain. When I married, I changed the deposit, deducting \$200 for household expenses. Since then, I have not been able to make a single deposit, but have been obliged to withdraw, every winter.”

This testimony shows that there are instances of deposits of over \$300; but it also shows that such deposits are the *result of withdrawals from other Savings Banks*, and that they are of an exceptional nature. A further evidence that these large sums are not the savings of wage-labor, is found in the fact that the hoarding of money by the laboring poor, is now almost obsolete, and to accumulate upwards of \$50, would require the habit of saving or hoarding of small sums, until a large sum was raised. But as the interest on a deposit commences at the first of each month, or quarter, there would be no motive to hoard longer than that time.

The wide-spread knowledge of the intent of the Savings Banks, has rendered them, for years, the favorite and almost only place, for the investment of the earnings of wage-laborers.

Money lent to individuals is now the rare exception; and the calling in of such loans as have been so invested, and the deposit of them in the Banks, would not change our conclusions.

Now, taking the earnings for three months at \$150, board at \$65, and clothing and all other expenses at \$35, for the same time, there would be left for the unmarried man, the sum of \$50, to deposit once in each three months, or four times each year.

A married man, with two or three children of from 10 to 20 years of age, all at work, may be able to save such a sum, but such cases are generally confined to the foreign population; the extremes between their past earnings in England or Europe, and their earnings here, giving them an advantage, in this respect, over the natives. As in the matter of wages, the change is a sudden one; while in the matter of custom or style of living, the change is one of slow growth. The Americans who save, are those who, from *good health, remarkably frugal habits, or for-*

fortunate circumstances of work or wages, or opportunities of cheap living at home when young, have a sufficient incentive to the self-denial necessary for the formation of the habit of saving something from their regular earnings, at all hazards.

Unmarried men have the greatest opportunity, as they can live cheaper, and, because of health and the independent conditions of their life, can command as much as a man with a large family. But saving money from the wage earnings of the head of a family, under the present low wages, is impossible to the majority of laborers, skilled or unskilled, unless by some shrewd management, or deprivation of such comforts as the demands of our times render necessary for the progress and safety of our institutions.

There is a class of deposits, in our large cities, that shows the poverty of working-women more than any argument can do. This class consists of poor women, who save and starve, for the sake of having enough to bury them;—an ambition that possesses them to the extent of even shortening their lives.

Further evidence to substantiate the results of our tables, could be procured by a more liberal summoning of witnesses.

We have given space for the following :—

A gentleman holding an official position under the Government, testified that he knew of one person having \$27,000 on deposit in our Savings Banks. Another gentleman, a Representative to the General Court, testifies to a knowledge of \$18,000 belonging to one person. The President of a Bank in Middlesex County says: “It is customary for parties to invest large sums of money in one Bank. I have been requested to accept sums of from five to fifteen thousand dollars. The method is to deposit in the name of some other person, fictitious or otherwise, the depositor acting as a trustee.”

We have ourselves witnessed the attempt to deposit a sum of \$5,000; and the only cause of failure was on account of the fact, that the depositor thought he could get larger interest from a newer bank.

An examination of the books of several Banks in Boston, an examination but casual, made revelations of something of the extent to which this is carried. The method was as follows:—

First, came the deposit of John Smith say \$900; then, J. S. trustee for A. \$900; J. S. trustee for B. \$900; J. S. trus-

tee for C. \$900; and so on; sometimes the members of the family are gone through with, and then a part of the alphabet.

On our visit to the Western part of the State, we examined, at different points, the different books for the month of September, and in each Bank found the name of a gentleman living as far east as Boston. The Treasurer of the last Bank examined, said that this travelling depositor had a few more \$500 notes left for future operations.

Some years ago, a member of the House of Representatives, was pointed out as having a deposit of \$500 in each Bank in the State. This was perhaps an exaggeration. But that this practice of depositing in different Banks is carried on to a large extent, there is no doubt. The books of the Banks, the testimony of the Bank-officers, as well as of Assessors, agree upon this point. Examined, then, on every side, it is an indisputable fact, that the banks are used by Capitalists, Traders and others, not wage laborers, and that the latter are not the owners of the large amounts deposited.

A wide difference exists in the matter of loans. In some of the smaller places, and, indeed, in some of the large towns, loans are made in small sums to working people. But, as a rule, the \$163,000,000 of capital is not so loaned as directly to help the laboring man, either to a home, or to a business.*

How much of it is loaned for speculative purposes,—especially speculation in the matter of building, we are not able to tell.

A working man, who had been a depositor for several years, testified, as follows:—

“I early formed the habit of saving and depositing money in the Savings Bank, and once having the money there, would not disturb it. Some years, I was not only unable to save, but could barely keep along. One winter, I was without coal, and rather than withdraw anything from my account I bought coal by the basket; but having my attention called to my folly, I computed the interest and found that I had squandered the interest on my whole deposit in the increased price I paid for coal. Mentioning this to my employer, he asked me how much I had. Upon answering, he replied, I borrowed a like amount of your bank yesterday. This set me to thinking, and when he supplemented his remarks by ask-

* See pp. 530-531, 2d Report.

ing me to lend him my money, the light seemed to dawn upon me that I was a consummate fool, to put my money at interest at 5 per cent., while my employer was hiring me and paying 7 per cent. interest on the money he paid me with. Of course, I declined the offer; partly, because I would not trust him, and partly, because I had determined to borrow instead of to lend.

"As soon as I could honorably leave my employer, I withdrew my deposit, applied for a loan, and again proved my ignorance; for, although worth more than my employer, (he was not worth anything at that time, though he has since become rich,) I could not raise a loan.

"Not knowing the business ways of the world, I invested my few hundred in a home, went to work again for wages, and now put my savings into the heads and hearts of my children, trusting to get the full interest by and by."

Another man testifies:—

"I applied to two of the Savings Banks for a small loan to aid me in going into business, and was refused; the only objection being, not in the security offered, but in the smallness of the loan. I was, therefore, forced on the street, and paid 24 per cent. for money for one year. It was worth that to me, for I could never make anything at day-wages. Now, I make a living by hiring others at two-thirds of what I receive for them."

To this testimony, we add the following, taken at a hearing before the Bureau:—

"We have Savings Banks in —— and I judge the operatives own most of the money deposited there. Am a trustee of our Bank. Do not know what percentage of our operatives are depositors. My view is that the Savings Banks are detrimental to the laboring man. True, he gets five or six per cent. interest; but the Bank makes a profit also for its sinking fund. More than that, the money is loaned to parties for speculation; and the laboring man while he gets his interest, has to pay ten or twelve per cent. more for the provisions he carries home.

"The loans are not made in small sums for the benefit of the poor, but in large sums to speculators in land, provisions, etc. As a rule, the bank management will loan \$10,000 sooner than \$400 or \$500."

As we have before stated, our investigation has been solely in the direction of the condition of the working classes. But

as so many of these are dependent in sickness and misfortune, upon the safety of their little savings, we feel called upon to implore, in their behalf, that nothing may endanger the security of their money placed in the keeping of Banks. The people feel that the State is their trustee, "that the books are examined by disinterested persons, and that no fluctuations of the market can affect their safety." The remarkable freedom from fraud hitherto in Massachusetts, and the carefulness that characterize their history, have been often referred to by Bank Commissioners, Governors, and other public men.

In the report of 1869, the Commissioners say that,—

"While the institutions, carefully and honestly managed, are among the most benevolent and most useful the State has provided, they are also more susceptible than any others, of being transformed by fraud and negligence into a powerful source of evil, destructive to the moral welfare of many, and to the common interest of all."

We gather from the Report of 1864, that

"One in five of the whole population of the State has a deposit, and, in a great proportion of cases, it constitutes the sole wealth of the depositor."

The same Report recommends that—

"A classification of these depositors, showing their employments and nativity, would be a most valuable and interesting statistical account, but it is of impracticable attainment. The classification for each single year, might, however, be easily obtained, and we should be glad to see it provided for by law."

"While honesty may not be a just cause for congratulation, yet, in view of the large amount of money that has passed through the hands of the several treasurers and clerks of these institutions, *subject to no complete system of checks* to prevent fraud, it is at least a legitimate source of gratification that the losses by dishonesty, during the period of nearly half a century since their first establishment in the State, have been so very small."

The italics, in the above quotation, are ours. The importance of such a classification, as will give a true index of the condition of these Institutions, cannot be overstated. A legislative enactment, compelling a uniform and comprehensive sys-

tem of book-keeping, would enable the State Commissioners to furnish, annually, such facts as would guide the Legislature to intelligent action.

The reluctance to conform to any legislative rule should not be heeded. The cry against interference by invested capital, is, as in the case of the South in the Rebellion, an appeal for license, not for liberty ; for self-interest, not for the general good.

Farther comments upon the power of the poor to save, will be given hereafter.

We now proceed to a Recapitulation of this part of our Report.

RECAPITULATION.

We have thus presented the facts and figures gathered from replies to our Circulars, and have grouped them for the information of the Legislature.

That they represent the actual condition of a very large portion of the citizens of Massachusetts, cannot be gainsaid. It will be conceded that wages in any given occupation cannot differ very materially in different parts of the State. The compactness of our population and the easy and ready intercommunication of business men and employers, both prevent it. Any material change in wage or time, in one part, is almost immediately known to all others in the same specialty ; so that the statistics we have been able to gather may be fairly taken as representing facts. Let us then look at the several industries examined, each by itself.

In Agriculture, wages are higher, in all cases, in the vicinity of large commercial and manufacturing centres—the greatest difference being \$7.25 per month. The same is true of agricultural wages in England. The general condition of the mere farm laborer, in all countries, is lower than that of the mechanic. The European and English Farm-laborers are marvels of ignorance, made such by centuries of neglect. We have *samples of them here in our own Farm-laborers*. The isolation of this class, growing out of the nature of their employment, has kept them in the rear, and by aiding their lack of knowledge, has rendered them dull of comprehension and slow to learn. Their opportunities of converse, and exchange of the few ideas they have, with their peers, are limited. They never

have had, and have not now any Trades' Unions. They have never combined, nor have they had societies among themselves to quicken aspirations or waken desire for knowledge. They plod along, occasionally changing their place, and sometimes stepping into other occupations. This is the status of the mere farm-laborer of our day—not of the American farm-laborer of the better days of our farming. Yet as the last was influenced and improved by the surroundings within which he was reared, so will the present farm-laborer or his children, be influenced and improved. Something of this is already apparent. Some are buying land, and paying for it by their own earnings, with the aid of those of wives and children,—although in most cases the purchase money is the result of the united earnings of the family in some other occupation. Yet this is a hard struggle; for though the farm-laborers have a better chance of saving something from their work-season, of eight months, than most unskilled laborers, it is doubtful whether such saving will bridge them over till the next season's earnings begin. The constancy of employment for *all* the working members of a household in textile factories, is the reason that the Irish seek that specialty, rather than that of agriculture, though in the end, the latter would be far better for them and their children,—if the wage of the father could support the family. But the eight months' labor would not yield such earnings.

Of the earnings and savings of Sailors, little can be learned. Their own peculiarities and that of their employment, render the acquiring of facts and figures, difficult and unsatisfactory. The fishermen of the Cape towns are probably better off than their comrades in other localities, their earnings showing as large an average as those of most other occupations; while the general equality of social position among them, renders them men of independent thought and action. Differing from the farm-laborer, they are bright, quick and energetic,—aspiring to become owners, each of his own comfortable, snug cottage down by the sea-side, within hearing of the roar of ocean and sight of its swelling waves. In the interval between voyages or fishing trips, they cultivate a patch of land, or give the time to some easy handicraft. Their life has many dangers, but is supplemented by many advantages.

The wages and earnings of Working Women, (as given in Class III.), indicate that they are proportionally much greater victims of business-oppressions, and more close upon positive poverty, than workers of the stronger sex. Short seasons of employment, low pay, crowded work and lodging rooms, with long-hours, over-work, inadequate food, shelter and clothing, unfit them, in after life, for the duties to which woman is called. That some women save money, is no more a proof that all can, than that because one person of either sex succeeds in painting, music, or sculpture, therefore all can. Like gifts are not given to all.

Of Domestics, so called, it may be said, that if constantly employed, and in families where a proper sympathy is extended to them, they are better off than vast numbers of other working-women, and have better opportunities of saving money. But it would be erroneous to estimate a year's earnings by the multiple of all the weeks in a year. We have done it to show the best extreme of their possibilities. Frequent change is the difficulty with them; a change originating with either party, mistress or maid, and frequently caused by the want of training for her work on the part of the latter, or the unwillingness or inability of the former, to give the requisite training, the mistress arguing, that she ought not to be required or expected to pay the pupil whom she instructs. Regular training for domestic service would be a great blessing to both maid and mistress. But constant changes are going on, in every household: and domestics, like other wage-laborers, are flitting from place to place, with entire uncertainty how long they shall stay in the last place. The old-country custom of long-continued household service by the same persons, from the family of the father to that of the son, seems to be unknown here.

Of the Factory-Operatives, those treated of in Classes IV. and V., we may say, with small fear of contradiction, that they are the worst sufferers under the wage-system. Their pay is put at the lowest point that will keep off positive want, so that the labor of wives and children must be added to that of fathers, in order to yield the family a proper support; wives whose appropriate place and duties are at home, and children whose appropriate place and duties are at school, or in the playground, for at least a part of the day. We know that instances are

not wanting, (we know some), where an able-bodied father, with an able-bodied mother and half a dozen able-bodied children, of well assorted ages, all in vigorous health and of enduring power of muscle, working without interruption for any cause whatever, for a period of years, and living under the most self-denying parsimony in house, clothing and food, have been able to save money, even to the extent of some thousands of dollars. But the cases are of great rarity, and cannot be adduced as establishing general rules.

The average earnings of wage-laborers of all classes does not exceed six hundred dollars, (\$600); and what amount of comfort in house, clothing, food or whatever else that will buy, may be learned by consulting our Tables of the cost of living. The purchasing power of the wage is too small, or the weight it can lift is too great, which means that the present ratio of one to the other is out of proportion. A day's work is not offset with enough of comfort to make labor alluring or attractive to the young, or stimulating to those who are already in it.

The *variety* of employments has, in modern times, greatly increased. Many employments have wholly changed, or have passed away, while the average earnings per year in most of them, do not differ. In employments where day-wages or piece-earnings reach a higher temporary figure than in other occupations, some drawbacks, such as the so-called overstocking of market, or under distribution of commodities, uncertainty of employment, short season of work, all which fewer hours of labor would remedy, come in to settle earnings down to a general level, that general level being about \$360 in England, with cost of living at about the same amount, and about \$600 here, with cost of living at about the same amount, the rule, always and everywhere, being that wages are regulated by the cost of living. Skill, once the strong defence of the artisan, is now trembling in the balance, to-day of value, to-morrow of none, rapidly retiring, with its apprenticed pupils, before the advance of machinery. In fact it is about conquered. Men of skill in trades which it was never supposed invention would reach, have been compelled to enlist into the service of machinery, or turned adrift to learn new trades, or gone to swell the ranks of unskilled laborers;—nothing, save the increasing demand for articles manufactured, coming in to their rescue. This is specially notice-

able in the boot and shoe business. But their becoming tenders of machinery annihilated their skill, for as the machine is the embodiment of skill, there is small need of skill on the part of the machine-tender. He is transformed from an adept, to be the servant of automatic apparatus, and the subdivision of labor renders this service simple and easily acquired. But few trades remain, in all departments of which a man can become an adept, and wherein he has opportunity to exercise his constructive faculties, for he knows that the machinery he tends will adjust its work with the needed precision. He needs neither to calculate, nor to make allowance; his principal function is "to feed the thing he tends," and if properly fed, the machine works up its food and digests it to the expected result, with unfailing certainty. So, skill is no longer a high requisite, and as apprentices, or rather, young persons, are cheaper than journeymen mechanics, the former take the places of the latter; these in their turn, to be replaced by the cheaper article of women and children. This is the reason why workingmen have become jealously opposed to an increase of apprenticing in many trades, looking upon the admission of young persons, women and children under that name, as an actual endangering of their "bread and butter."

As we have just said, this tendency to eliminate skilled labor is specially prominent in the boot and shoe trades, and as improved machinery therein is still further introduced, still cheaper help will be found possible and profitable, and will therefore be employed. This fact is now verified by the Chinese labor at Mr. Sampson's factory in North Adams.

In the Iron Works, hard, muscular labor is the positive requirement; labor that most Americans shrink from, because of its violent action on body and mind, and because of the consequent denial of privileges and opportunities such as become an American, educated citizen.

In the Cutlery establishments, young persons predominate, and young children are employed. The most intelligent class of mechanics is to be found in the Machine Shops, especially where machinery is originally manufactured.

The out-door trades of Ship and House Building, have yet some of the old spirit of independence remaining in their ranks. Yet ship building is declining. They formerly led in all movements

of reform in the trades, but of late years, they seem to be inactive. These trades gained the ten-hour rule, and to the former is largely due the National Eight Hour Law.

Of unskilled out-door laborers, but little information can be gathered, save that they are poor, live poor, and remain poor, as a rule. We have described the homes of city-laborers, in other reports.

The hours of labor average higher in the Textile Fabrics, where the most women and children are employed, and, as before stated, the wages are lower; and this is true, as a rule, *that wages are lowest where the hours of labor are longest, and wages are highest where the hours of labor are shortest*. Every return made to this Office, where this question has been answered, admits that wages are not reduced with decreased hours, but that the reverse is true; although it is not admitted that the increase of wages is due to the short time. The confession of many, that production has not fallen off, or that it has fallen off, but not in the same ratio as the reduced hours, is worthy of note.

The most noted feature of the question is found in the fact, that the employers favoring ten hours, have answered all the objections to reduction raised by the employers working eleven or twelve hours; and yet the former will not concede the short time, though further reduction is imperatively demanded by unanswerable arguments.

The cost of living found in our tables, needs no comments. The difference in cost, accords with the difference in wages, except in case of our foreign population, whose habits of life are far behind our own. Their wages have, in many cases, reached the level of their style of life, and can only be raised by the improvement in their habits that must come with the increased pressure of our society, or if not raised to our customs, our institutions and customs will be levelled to their condition;—a condition that is incompatible with a republican government. Of the savings of labor we have just treated, and no review is needed here.

We have presented such facts as have been forwarded us, and made such deductions as the statements warrant. Our returns came from reliable men, almost all of them of the employing

class ; men who could not have had any motive to misrepresent the wages and earnings of persons within their employ.

The returns are given over the signatures of the respondents, and if they have made untrue statements, and signed their names to them, it is another and convincing proof of the demoralizing influence of the present disproportioned system of compensation for labor.

PART II.

TESTIMONY AND NARRATIVE.

We give, in this part of our Report, an account of our visits to various parts of the State, together with testimony from employers, physicians, citizens, and workingmen. A good idea of the condition of labor can be obtained, from a perusal of these statements.

The visits are given in the order of the classification of occupations, instead of in the order of places visited.

VISITS OF BUREAU.

Description of Employments, and condition of Employés.

Clothing,—Boston.

July 13th, Visited Freeland, Beard & Co.'s clothing establishment, 152 Devonshire St. Were shown over the whole establishment by Mr. Beard. He explained the system of book-keeping ; and, upon opening the books at different dates, the wages were found to correspond with the returns in the last report, showing that the best method by which they can be stated, is the method therein given. The work-rooms were generally airy, and as clean as the occupation would permit. At noon-time, the girls cook their own dinners over ranges or furnaces, each of them having proper facilities. The principal food seemed to be toasted bread and tea. For wages, see returns.

Candles,—New Bedford.

Visited the Paraffine Candle Manufactory, of Thayer and Judd. There were 21 persons employed, all men, with the exception of one young woman. The men are engaged in the

different processes of manufacture ; the women in polishing and boxing ready for market. The first process, is the melting of the crude wax in large iron tanks, holding 52 barrels, the heating being done with steam. After passing through this process, it is drawn off into tin pans, and set on frames or ricks, and cooled. It is now put through a cutting-machine and then shovelled into a wooden frame, about 2 inches deep, and 14 inches square. This frame is placed upon a piece of bagging specially made for this purpose. Each frame, when filled, is then wrapped or bagged, and placed under an hydraulic press, and when the press is sufficiently full, is subjected to a very great pressure, the press being capable of giving 52 tons ; this would however destroy the bags. It is then taken out and melted over, until it is white enough for use, sometimes requiring 3 and sometimes 5 or 6 times round to remove all taint of color ; in fact, until it is almost transparent. It is then melted and subjected to a chemical process, and then run into moulds, each frame having 96 moulds, and there being 7 frames.

Under these moulds, are spools of wicking running up through the moulds into a wooden frame, that holds the moulded candle. The melted wax is drawn from the iron tank and emptied into the moulds by hand.

Cold water is constantly running in pipes around the moulds. When cold, a crank is turned that raises the candles from the moulds into the receiving-frame, where the endless wicking is running up through the moulds. A sharp knife severs the wick from the candle and takes it off, and the candles are then polished by hand. The machinery was not dangerous, and the elevator was carefully protected. It is said that the business is healthy.

Boot Factory.

Visited a Boot Factory, on Men's pegged boots. Almost all of the 50 persons employed were native. All but one can read and write. The man that cannot, has charge of the sole-leather, and has to keep account of the amount of different sorts and kinds, and it is said that he never makes mistakes. He carries the number in his head, and makes certain marks upon different sizes of soles. Much of the work is done by contract, the contractor making a large percentage on his employer.

We were informed by one of the proprietors, that if he made as much on his men as the contractor, he would be rich in a year. A very intelligent class of men were employed in this establishment.

Button Manufactory, Easthampton.

National Button Company. Samuel Williston, President ; H. T. Knight, Treasurer and General Agent. Persons employed, 150. Girls, 137 ; average age, 20 years ; all but 5 or 6 American. Work very clean ; ten hours a day. The girls looked very intelligent, contented and interested in the work.

*Mining.—Hoosac Tunnel, North Adams.**

The men employed in the Tunnel are paid two dollars a day, for eight hours' work. There are three gangs employed ; the work is carried on night and day, the only cessation being from 12 o'clock on Saturday night to 12 o'clock on Sunday night. The remaining 16 hours not given to sleep, are occupied in cutting wood, and drawing water for the family,—the latter being no small task, as the water is carried a considerable distance, being obtained from a brook at the mouth of the tunnel. The men mainly obtain their provisions, groceries and dry-goods at the store near the Tunnel, but are not obliged to trade at any particular place. When they have money, they trade at the town stores, but can get trusted only at the Tunnel store. The charges for goods at this store are *much higher than at the village stores*. Wages are paid once a month, in cash, but the contractors accept orders on stores when desired. One of the workmen informed us, that, having been sick and unable to work, he received no wages for six months, during which he subsisted on his credit at the store. He had resumed work, but had received no wages, and did not expect to receive any, until the debt which accrued during his sickness, was discharged. The same party also stated, that a good many workmen came there without money, and were obliged to trade at the store, under the order system, in order to subsist until they received their first month's wages ; and it sometimes happened that such person's wages, at the end of the month, would be insufficient to discharge his indebtedness, *and he would be kept from month to month in this way, without having any ready money.*

* See homes of working people.

The general testimony was that the health of the miners was good; the principal difficulty being diseases of the throat, caused by the difference in temperature between the surface and the Tunnel. Those of the miners, who attend church, have to walk to the village, a distance of $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles. They are not, as a general rule, regular church-goers, but their children mostly go to Sunday school.

Next visited the public school near the mouth of the tunnel. This school is maintained by the Town, like other public schools. The parents of the children who attend, are not required to contribute directly to its support, and never have been assessed for its maintenance, except in the way of taxes paid to the town. One or more of the miners informed us, that a tax of \$2 had been assessed as a school tax; but careful inquiry convinced us that this was a mistake, and that the \$2 referred to was the regular poll-tax paid to the town. The school contains 140 *scholars, under one master*, and the teacher stated that it was impossible to do them any justice, or to teach them much, there were so many. Most of the scholars are able to read, though some are learning their letters. The school is kept 40 weeks in the year, and the school-house, in the matter of accommodation, comfort and general fitness for the purpose for which it was used, is in complete accord with the tenements hereinafter described. It is about 50 by 30 feet and 9 feet high, and like them wholly unfit for its purposes.

Paper, Holyoke.

Visited the Whiting Paper Co's. Works. The rag-pickers and cutters are Irish women, average age 28, strong and hearty looking. There are no children employed. The girls, in the other rooms, were very well dressed, and young looking. Mr. Whiting said his principal difficulty was in keeping the girls steadily at work, as, from some cause or other, those in his employ were constantly getting married, and that they made very desirable wives.

*Carpet Manufactory, Danvers.**

Danvers Centre, July 10, 1871. Visited the Danvers Carpet Co., Gilbert A. Tapley, Treasurer and Superintendent. Factory

* See Strikes.

situated in a hollow or lowland, near a brook, five rods from the street, and enclosed with a picket fence. On entering the yard, there was a long, wooden building, once a rope-walk, used for storage; on the left, a vacant lot of land. Four rods from the street, and about one from the factory, directly in front of the dye-room, is a pond or pool, of some 50 by 30 feet, filled with refuse waste from the waste cleaning. This rubbish was exposed to the sun, and also contained the washings from the dye-house. The mill is a coarse wooden mill, twenty years old, and completely out of order. The windows in the back part are filled with old hats and rags. The floors are all rotten and rickety, and everything covered with dust. A jack-spinner's track was worn one inch deep where his feet stepped. The belting and shafting were all exposed. The wool used is very dirty and full of lime. Three children were at work, very pale looking. The law, in regard to the employment of children, was broken in every respect. The looms were idle, the weavers being on a strike for higher wages. The machinery was very old; and all the looms are hand-loom. The dust and fibre from the wool covered everything. The out-houses were without doors; the men's privy being without a cover, and the womens' having an old bag as a door. Mr. Tapley, the agent, was out of town; and conversation was had with one of the operatives, who told us that, in the picking room, three men had died within six years. On visiting the picking room, we found an Irishman at work, having his nostrils and mouth covered with sponge. When the picker is in operation, it is impossible to see from the door to the picker, a distance of some 12 feet. The stench from the pool in front of the factory, must be exceedingly offensive in warm weather. Visited the houses of the operatives and found them in bad condition, described further on, in homes of the working men.

Cotton and Print Cloths, Florence.

Visited the cotton mill of J. P. & A. L. Williston, a brick factory, having one large basement room beneath the level of the street. The superintendent was away. Entered the mill and found very small children employed. Took the following names and facts: Martha Wayland, 11 years old; worked in the mill 10 months; *never been at school; can*

neither read nor write. John Mahan, 15 years old ; has worked three years ; *has not been at school for four years* ; can read but not write. Michael Wayland, 15 years ; has not been at school for two years ; signed his name to book. Martha Latham, 14 years old ; worked 4 years ; has not been at school for one year ; can read a little, but cannot write. Robert Shirley, 16 years old ; *has not been at school for 7 years* ; can read and write ; has worked two years. Richard Reedon, 12 years old ; cannot read nor write ; one year since he was at school. James Haley, in his 12th year ; worked two years without schooling. A watch boy 9 years old ; name given but not understood ; does not speak English. Mill runs $11\frac{1}{4}$ hours per day, *the children working full time*. Many of the children were very small in stature and emaciated. The overseer of the male room, Michael Haley, had been at work there 21 years. There is no enforcement of the school law.

Haydenville.

Visited the Hayden Cotton Manufacturing Company. Runs 11 hours per day. 31 children under 15. Full one-half of those apparently not more than ten years of age—the largest part of them French. Philip Grady, Irish, 11 years ; cannot read nor write. James Cameron, 12 years : has been at work two years ; can read a little but not write ; his father works in the mill ; is Scotch. Joseph Clair, French, 12 years old ; cannot read nor write ; worked two years. Mary Wilson, French, cannot read nor write ; been at work two years. Another girl, 14 years old, has worked five years ; cannot read nor write nor spell her name. A boy of 12, worked one year ; cannot speak English.

Easthampton.

Williston Mills, Samuel Williston, proprietor. Found Michael ———, 15 years of age ; cannot read nor write. Mary Wayland, 14 ; Daniel Carey, 14 ; *each had worked four years without schooling*. An Irish boy, 13 years ; worked two years, cannot read nor write. Hattie Mahony, 9 years old ; worked here two months ; can read and write. Left school last term ; signed her name on a book. Thomas McDonald, 10 years ; cannot read ; worked four months. Nancy Wayland, 12 years ; worked one year ; *has not been at school*. Joseph

Cushing, Irish ; 9 years last March ; has worked three weeks. A French boy, ten years old this Fall. Kittie Green, 10 years old ; worked here one year ; can read and write. G. Fitzgerald, 11 years ; has worked three years ; been at school one season. Andrew Smith ; 10 years last June ; worked here two years ; *has not been at school in all that time* ; can read a little. P. Quade, nearly 11 ; worked one year ; has not been at school. Some of the machinery protected. This mill was dirty, and there was an utter neglect of the school law.

*Holyoke **

Hadley Thread Mill. A very commodious building, with most ample stairways, easy of escape in case of fire ; surroundings neat and pleasant ; work clean ; but some of the rooms very badly ventilated, even so much as to cause nausea. John Branning, 14 years old ; has worked one year ; not been to school. Robert McBride, 14 ; worked one year and a half ; has not been at school for three terms. Eliza Anderson, 12 years ; *has never been to school* ; worked here 4 or 5 years. James Woodhouse, 43 years old ; worked in mills from 1828 to 1854 ; is now overseer of spinning room ; believes that as much can be produced in ten hours as is now produced in 11, and that it will be, in every way, an advantage to both parties concerned. Knows something of the operation of the English Factory Act ; by correspondence and otherwise, always heard that it was very successful. The air in the spinning room was dry and hot, especially where the children were employed. We were so oppressed with the heat as to be obliged to retire.

Next visited the winding room ; mostly American girls are there employed in winding the thread upon spools. Conversed with a young girl, who had worked there two years, from whom we learned that, in the winding department, they worked but 9 or 10 hours a day, while the mill ran 11.

Pittsfield.

Barkersville, Oct. 7, visited the establishment of J Barker & Brother. 120 persons employed ; hours of labor 10 h. 55 m. per day. Store connected with the establishment. Tenements owned by company. The agent in charge, in an-

* See remarks on hours of labor.

swer to our questions, said: "*We do not ask the ages of children nor make any arrangements for their schooling. It is better for them to work than to go to school, as the teachers are girls of about 16 or 17, and they can learn nothing. They need a man teacher, who can beat them.*" He repeated that it was of no use for them to go to school, for they could not learn. James Clary, 13 years old; worked 3 years; has only been to school when the mill was stopped for repairs. Stairways, *unprotected by bannisters or railings; belts uncovered and shafting and pulleys close by the unguarded stairways!* Belts running low and *parallel* with the floor and constantly endangering the limbs of the children. In answer to a question, the Superintendent said that no accidents had yet happened, and that when the *company was rich enough, it would probably protect the stairways and belts.* An utter neglect of the law was observable and frankly confessed.

North Adams.

Visited Arnold & Ray's Mill,—Print works; run 11 hours a day; no system of schooling; one-half hour for dinner; stop, on Saturday, at half-past three, and, sometimes, at half-past two. A great room, full of children between 10 and 15 years of age, and some under. The owner, Mr. Arnold, testified that he would like to have the children employed but 10 hours per day, but the parents interfered. He also said that he wished that children did not have to work at all. He said that the parents were so poor, it cost them all they could earn, with their children, to support their families. At the same time, he testified that, as a rule, the operatives were making money and laying it up in Savings Banks; and that labor was making more money than capital; and further, that the operatives were very intemperate and a very poor class of citizens; and that, but for rum, they would own the town. "They live so poor that they can save when we would starve." The Irish have started a reading room; and the teachers say that some of the Irish are among their best scholars. They have also started a temperance society, and have obtained many members. In regard to the Chinese, he testified that he didn't want any more of them introduced into North Adams, although they were a steady, quiet and industrious people; but that they

were very small consumers, most of their articles of consumption being imported directly from China. He thought they would in time fall into our habits and methods, and demand better wages. At present, they do not spend one-half as much as the Irish, because they do not earn one-half as much.

Blackstone.

The Mills of the Blackstone Co. are very clean with the most complete Fire Escapes of any visited. The stairways have iron railings and ample room; main belts are protected, but the smaller ones are unprotected. The weaving room is in the basement, and very dark; has to be lighted early in the afternoon. The other rooms are light. No small children are employed in the card room. The average age in the dressing room is 18 years.

Among the rules and regulations of this Mill are the following:—

“No person will be allowed to enter any room in which they are not employed nor to have any conversation with any one but the Overseer. Should any one employed under him be wanted, he will send the hand from the room—if he can be spared—subject to a loss of time for being absent *fifteen minutes*. No hands will be allowed to bring their friends or children into the mills to stay with them while at work.”

“No children under 12 years of age, will be taken into the mills on any terms. Children under 15 years of age will not be employed over 60 hours per week.”

“No child under 15 years of age will be employed in the mills or yard, unless such child shall have attended some public or private day school, at least *three* months within the *twelve* months preceding the time of such employment, and for the same period, *three* months, during any and every *twelve* months in which such child shall be so employed.”

A book is kept by the clerk, with the following heads:—

Children's names. Age. Name of parents or guardians. When commencing school. When last at school. When to be sent to school. Occupation of children in the mill. Children are required to bring certificate furnished by the Company.

This is the only mill visited where Bath-rooms are provided.

The agent testified that the bath-rooms were used by the operatives, more for the purpose of getting out of the mill than for purposes of cleanliness.

Ballard's Mill.—Globe Village, Southbridge.

This Mill is low-studded, and filled with children from 10 or under, to 18 years of age. The carding room was very oppressive, and full of children. In asking their ages, they told us that they were 12 and 15. The mules were wholly unprotected.

Elastic and Rubber Goods.—Easthampton.

Visited the Glendale Elastic Co. Found one boy, Robert Johnson, 8 years of age.

Reported the case to the Superintendent, who entered the name upon a book and assured us that it was against the rule, and he would attend to the case. Much interest was manifested in the education of the children and the enforcement of the law.

Visited Nashawannuck Mill; work 10 hours per day; make suspenders and garters. This is the only mill we visited, in which the law of the State was framed and posted in a prominent place in the counting-room. An examination of the children showed that all had had their legal schooling, and were above the required age. The mill was very neat and clean in appearance, the children healthy and tidy in dress. Average age of females employed, 25 years, all looking well.

Jute and Flax.—Salem.

India Manufacturing Co.; Corporate. J. W. Daniels, Treasurer. 50 children, between 10 and 15 years of age, are employed 66 hours per week, and no provision is made for their schooling. Treasurer absent, and Clerk in charge. We asked for the privilege of visiting the Mill, but he declined to grant it. His orders from Mr. Daniels would not permit it. We then said "we are State officers;" but he still preferred not to admit us till the Treasurer was at home. We therefore left, having no authority to enforce our request.

Bengal Bagging Co., corporate. Francis Peabody, Treasurer, C. C. Osgood, Agent and Superintendent. 150 persons employed; 25, under 15; 25 young persons. Hours of labor,

64 per week. Commence at 6.30 ; one hour for dinner ; leave work at 6.30. On Saturday, let out at 5. Children are let out half a day each week, but there is no system about it. Children sometimes bring certificates of age, and some, certificates of schooling. Four of the latter were dated 1871. The mill had the English rope frames, protected in the most perfect manner ; belts, protected by wooden frames, the dust from the pickers being carried out of the windows by fans, and the pickers enclosed like the card frames, in wooden enclosures. The establishment was very clean. This was the first mill visited that had the English protected machinery. Some American machinery in the mill was unprotected.

Andover.

Visited the Flax mill of Smith & Dove. Three of the rooms are used as hackling rooms. The men were very pale. The hackling process consists of pulling the flax through steel teeth, the process combing the flax and splitting it, and raising a very fine dust that fills the room. The men's hair and beards are entirely covered with this fine, white powder. In the first room, talked with two men, one, a very pale, light-blue-eyed Irishman, who had worked at the business 42 years ; 20 years in this country. He said he had experienced no difficulty from the employment ; that his lungs were in a good sound condition, and that a great deal of the damage to health in the business was owing to the posture of the men. He had been apprenticed to the business in Ireland, and his master there taught him the position to take when at work so as to throw his shoulders back and keep his spine erect ; but that, in this country, the men had no such apprenticeship, and they were narrow-chested and round-shouldered, out of form and out of health. We remarked upon his extreme paleness, and he said Yes ; all men employed in that business had that color, and he was better when he was pale than at any other time. He said that, perhaps, his extra health was owing to his playing a wind instrument, he belonging to a band and being in continual practice. Near to him, stood another man, nationality unknown, whose shoulders protruded, and whose chest was sunken and his appearance death-like. He was a man about 28 years of age, and said that he suffered from the dust. The

majority of the men were of his appearance. In two of the rooms, the men are paid by the day, the hackling process going through three rooms before it is finished ready for the preparing room. In the third or last room, the men are paid by the piece and work eight hours a day. They average their own time. Upon asking one of them if he found that system satisfactory, he replied that he had found it extremely satisfactory; they made as much money and were in better health. Visited the preparing room, which is also full of fine dust. The persons employed are children and young persons. They work $11\frac{1}{4}$ hours a day, except on Saturday, when the time is shortened. One child, Eliza McIntosh, ten years of age, had worked five months. The overseer said that they let out the children at different times in the week, so as to not work them over 60 hours per week; and that he required a certificate from school teachers. In the spinning room, found less dust and fewer children. The machinery in this mill is mostly imported, English machinery, and is all protected, so that it is impossible to get caught in it, unless purposely. In the spinning room, some American machinery had been placed that was totally unprotected; the cog-wheels and gearing exposing the children and young persons to constant danger. In the reeling room, the girls have their fingers pinched in the machinery, and often lose a finger. The overseer, an Englishman, of long experience, stated that, when the children first came to work, they choked up and were sick two or three days, but soon recovered. They are sick with "mill fever," as he called it. The Superintendent told us that, in his experience of thirty-five years, he had known ten or a dozen men to accumulate from one to two thousand dollars.

Silk.—Leeds.

Visited the Nonatuck Silk Mills. Small children are employed at winding, 10 hours per day. Four of them cannot read nor write. They are French. An attempt is made to enforce the law, but no system has been adopted; though the superintendent in charge says he tries to do his duty. The parents object to the law. The children gave their ages as eleven, and some of them have worked two years, and some only a short time. They were small of their age. The work is very clean and the mill very neat.

Woollen.—Dalton.

Visited the Woollen Mill, Agent, Superintendent and Clerk away. Thomas Rowean, 14 years of age; worked one year. Joseph Rowean, 12, can read but not write; worked one year. John Gross, 15 next August; worked three or four years; can read but not write; father works on a farm owned by himself. After examining the mill, conversed with the clerk, who had returned, and ascertained the system of payment. The company has an apartment connected with the works in the mill building, which is used as a store and counting-room, where most of the operatives trade; although it is said they are not obliged to do so. The clerk testified that, at times, the bills of the operatives for groceries, &c., exceeded the amount of their wages; that this was often the case. Any sum due them, over and above their bills, is paid them in cash. The testimony of a mule spinner in their employ, very reluctantly given, corroborated this statement. Help very inferior-looking and mill badly ventilated.

North Andover.

Next visited Sutton's Mills, Shawl Manufactory. The building is a brick one, some 30 years old, but in good repair. The machinery was unprotected, and the children were very small in stature, but all answered that they were over 10 years of age. They work eleven hours per day, and have three-quarters of an hour for dinner. Arrangements are made, so far as possible, to let the children have a spare half-day in the week. 8 out of 11 could read and write. Katy Smith, 11, could neither read nor write; never went to school, because "mother had to work in the mill, and she had to keep house." Has one brother, "most as big as me," who goes to school. The other was five years old on Patrick's day. Found one boy, John Mahan, who will be ten years of age, five months after Christmas. The operatives in the mill seemed to have a freedom of speech that was not observable anywhere else. In conversation with an intelligent spinner, who had worked in the mill twelve years, he said he should very much like to have a ten-hour law, and believed he could earn as much under a ten-hour as under an eleven-hour system. He had worked in a mill, off and on, for 25 years; had worked under the long-

time system, and was satisfied that employers and employed would both be better off, if they should adopt the short-time rule. Appearance of the mill good.

Ballardvale.

Next visited Bradley's Woolen Mill, a Flannel Factory. The help looked very intelligent, and the mill was in the most remarkable order as to cleanliness. The help was the most intelligent of any we had seen in any woolen mills. Found Mary Ann Cassidy, under ten years of age, who could neither read nor write; and other small children of about the same age. Talked with a spinner, who had worked in the place 30 years; also with an overseer, who had worked 45 years, except four years out. The spinners, especially, looked very intelligent, and the superintendent informed us they were among the most temperate and best citizens in the place. Also conversed with James M. Hollingsworth, who had had 45 years' experience in the woolen mills in this country and England. The Operatives all expressed themselves in favor of a short-time rule, and the Superintendent in favor of compulsory education. An effort was constantly made to comply with the requirements of the law, but no system had been adopted.

Visited Marland's Manufactory; Wool. Mill very old; belts unprotected; children very dirty, and the building all out of order and filthy. A large belt, in the weaving-room, ran so low that we were obliged to stoop under it; and, in the spinning room, bagging was placed over some of the belts to warn people to stoop. The fire-escape ladder was out of order, and was easily detached from the wall. Some of the rounds were rotten. The whole place should be condemned as unfit for occupation. At the time of the Pemberton Mills accident, the corporation put some pillars in the building and tried to shore it up. The employers were quite frightened at that time, but, as one of them told us, got used to it; although they were a little alarmed at a large crack in the wall caused by the settling of the factory in one part. *This is the dirtiest mill yet visited.*

Groveland.

Next visited Hale's Mills. The first mill a new structure, very fairly ventilated. A large number of very small chil-

dren are employed. Bridget Murphy, 9 years, "going on two weeks," has worked two months. David Author, 10 next Christmas; been at work 5 months. Most of the children were about the same size and build. One boy, James Hollingworth, 14 years of age, had *never* been to school. In this mill, on the lower floor were benches and the apparatus for an evening school, and all the children employed by Mr. Hale, were compelled to attend this school, for two hours each evening of the week,—the mill stopping half an hour earlier for this purpose. The school is taught by the clerk of the company, and the children are charged \$1.50 a month, each, for the privilege, the money going to the clerk. There are about fifty scholars. The proprietor, Mr. Hale, had that day sailed for Europe, his son having charge of the premises. He evinced great pride in the school, although he informed us that some of the town authorities were opposed to it. The operatives were very reticent, and but little information could be obtained from them. Every one readily replied that he attended evening school. In conversation with the clerk, who acts as school-master, we learned that some of the children fell asleep at their desks, and that he often wished more would. His trouble was not with the sleepy ones, but with "those who wished to raise the devil." He also said when the children were let out at night, after school, many of them did not return to their homes until late, and that they romped and hallooed and were very wild and rude. Next visited the nearest school. In conversation with the teacher we learned that the School Committee are very much opposed to Mr. Hale's system; that very little was learned there, and people felt outraged that children should be obliged to stop in the mill from twelve to fourteen hours a day. Children were found in this school, who had worked in the mill before they were ten years of age; and some, who had attended the evening school, but were very poor scholars. At the school, found a boy, by the name of Dan Fuller, 10 years of age, who worked in the mill last winter. Visited the old mill. A very dangerous mill in case of fire; low-studded; belting unprotected, and some of the stairways rotten.

Uxbridge.

Private establishment. The children, at work in the Mill, are hired by the Superintendent and Overseer. The Superintendent looks after the schooling of the children. A member of the school committee, who is overseer of a mill, comes in occasionally. The Superintendent was in England until 1853, and saw the working of the Factory Acts. He thinks we get as much production under short hours as under the long hour system ; the help fare better ; and as a large proportion of the help are women, it would prove of special benefit. The help go and come from Rhode Island, and some go West. The Spinners are the lowest class, and frequently get drunk.

The Wool Sorters never light up. Their average hours are 9 or 10 per day. The majority are opposed to their children's attending school, and also opposed to their marrying. There are several instances of "unpleasantness" occurring in the village, from the latter cause. John Kinnan, not 10 years of age, has been at work in this mill 2 months.

Center Mill.

Mill very fair. Shafting good. Children at work under 12 years and very small. The agent said, "Owing to the scarcity of help in 1860, we reduced the time to 11 hours per day. I can't say whether the employés were willing. We considered it a bid for help—a bid for higher wages, or less hours." Wages and condition about the same. Wages are larger in cities owing to increased cost of living. The weavers work for less, owing to the large number of unemployed women. There are 100 persons, living in three of the houses belonging to this Corporation. There are 80 children in the village between 5 and 15 years of age, but no officer to look after truants.

The Capron Mill is a very old wooden building. We saw very small children at work here, one under 10 years, who had worked 18 months ; went to school last term.

Cutlery.—Turner's Falls.

Next visited the cutlery establishment of J. Russell & Co. Children, of all ages, employed in the dust of emery wheels and ground steel. The men looked hardened, and the chil-

dren puny and pale. The noise of the trip-hammer and smell of the dust were unendurable. The grinders reminded us of the description in Reade's "Put Yourself in his Place." The appearance of the men was of the worst description, and we were told by citizens of the town, that many of them were of most intemperate habits. The brick tenements were plastered on the brick and were very damp and cold, there being no furring. The men all showed contracted chests, sharp faces, retreating brows and sunken eyes. Many young persons were engaged in the grinding room, in contracted positions, with nostrils immediately over the flying dust of the emery wheels.

Shelburne Falls.

October 10th, visited Lamson, Goodnow & Co's. cutlery establishment. Shown over the whole establishment by the gentleman in charge. Very few small children were employed; and, although no system of time as to schooling has been adopted, it was found on examination that the children had attended school, most of them, within a year. The men looked better than the men at Turner's Falls, and seemed more intelligent; had better faces. Their privileges, were better. The grinders work by the piece, and, from the fact that the machinery is not exactly balanced, they finish their work in from six to eight hours a day. The gentleman in charge testified that the men improved their spare time by working on little patches of land, some of which were owned by the grinders. There is very little drunkenness. The men are principally, German and Irish; some American. They are all round, shouldered, and some of sallow complexion. There has been but one death of grinder's consumption. The workmen told us of two grindstones bursting in one day, but no one was injured thereby.

Sewing Machines.—Florence.

Visited the Sewing Machine Company's Works, at which no children are employed. Found a very intelligent class of men employed, most of whom are Americans, and many of whom own their own houses. The work is very clean and the whole establishment was in excellent order; work, 10 hours a day. E. D. Tanner, the overseer of one of the rooms, says

that the Company has worked extra hours, but that the product of the extra time did not pay the expense of the extra time.

Iron Works.—Haydenville.

Visited the establishment of Mr. Hayden. Run eleven hours per day. The men employed are mostly foreigners. Some 12 girls and five or six boys are employed. The boys are French and Irish, and their schooling is neglected. Considerable of the work is done under the contract system. The men looked overworked. Mr. Hayden accompanied us and exhibited his new counting room, with its almost regal finish and elaborate panelling and frescoes. He is in favor of a compulsory school system.

Richmond.

Visited the Richmond Iron Company's Works. George Coffin, Superintendent. He was away, and the book-keeper kindly taking care of our horses, left us to look about the works on our own account. Visited the furnaces and found some six or eight men,—French, we judged by their appearance, except two. One of them, an Irishman, about 50, politely showed us the method of charging the blast with charcoal, lime, stone and iron, each blast being in weight from 1,200 lbs. upwards. Then visited the engine-room, and from there went to the furnaces, where the iron is taken out. The furnace is tapped and the melted iron runs into pens that are called pig-pens, one of the men immediately covering them with damp sand, and then standing upon this hot iron to break the joints, in a cloud of steam almost intolerable. Then visited the charcoal burners ; work done under contract. The men at the furnaces earn from \$1.25 to \$1.50 a day, and live in tenements belonging to the Company. The quarrymen were not at work. A similar class of tenements is described in our visit to the Hoosac Mountain. The occupants of the tenements *have to go three quarters of a mile for water*. The work was very dirty and hard, the operatives being obliged to work 12 hours a day. Upon asking one of the men why he remained there at work, he said he could not go away ; he was constantly in debt, and giving orders for his wages.

Wood Pulp.—Turner's Falls.

Visited the wood pulp mill, where pulp is manufactured from poplar wood. Men are engaged in shaving the bark off from the wood and cutting it into the usual stove length. Then it is cut up by axes, the men cutting off all the dark places. It is then put into the machines and ground up. The men receive \$1.50 per day; rent is \$8.33 to \$10.40 per month.

TESTIMONY

Descriptive of the conditions of Operatives' Life in Factory and Manufacturing Towns.

The following testimony was largely obtained at the time of our visits to the places before described.

We have divided the testimony into subjects, commencing with the General Condition of Employés, then the Story of Workingmen, Chinese Labor, Truck System, Accidents, Strikes, Homes of the Working-Classes, etc.

Blackstone.—This place was represented to us as being less enterprising than it was 20 years ago. The land is owned by corporations, and individuals who will not sell. The Bank was moved to Franklin because they could not afford to keep it in Blackstone. Real Estate has depreciated, almost one-half. A house that cost \$7,000, was offered for sale with no bidder, but has since been sold for \$4,000. The mills PAY CASH, but the operatives cannot get trusted without giving a power of attorney to the trader, so that the employés hardly ever see any cash.

A Physician informed us that two-thirds of the operatives were financially embarrassed, many of them never seeing more than \$3.00 per month of their wages.

Testimony of Dr. Wm. M. Kimball, of Blackstone.

Q. How long have you resided in Blackstone? A. Thirty years.

Q. When you first came here, what was the nationality of the population? A. They were then all Americans, and sober, industrious people. This village was what I should call a "Model Village." The population in these two villages, according to the last Census, is about 3,000. The whole place goes by the name of Blackstone, but this village still inclines to the name of Waterford. Q. Which

is the principal manufacturing corporation here? *A.* The Blackstone Cotton Manufactory. It is a very large establishment, with 35,000 or 40,000 spindles, and employs 1,500 operatives. There are three Woolen Mills below. No. 1, is a large establishment, running 24 sets of machinery. No. 2 runs 10 sets, and No. 3, 12 sets. *Q.* Do the operatives live in their own houses, or do they hire or board? *A.* They hire of the corporations, who hold and do not sell a foot of land, on any terms, to anybody. They own enough to accommodate all, and, if any land in the place is sold, they buy it. They calculate to own and do own about the whole village. At Waterford, they own pretty much the whole. Out of the population here, about 3,000 are Irish, and of the lowest class, too. I can hardly describe how they live. They are in a miserable condition. Everything has completely changed here within 12 or 15 years. We used to have a model village under Mr. Farnham's administration. Some land was sold then and the Corporation cannot get it back. When an Irishman gets a piece of land he usually holds on to it. *Q.* What do you consider the reason that the American population left and the Irish took their places? *A.* There might, perhaps, be various reasons for it. When the corporations began to hire the Irish, the Americans didn't like it very well. They didn't like to live by the side of them and began to go away and to live in tenements farther off—or move out of town. This continued for a number of years, until the Irish began to preponderate, and then the Americans chiefly left. In fact, we have rather a tough state of things here for the State of Massachusetts to swallow. Formerly we had good families here; the children went to school regularly; the people had books in their houses, and it was a nice community. That is what kept me here for a time. In Blackstone, there was not quite so much attention paid to these things, but there was a very decent state of society compared with what there is now. As this new population came in, things began to change. They had a different system of living. The Mills hired the lowest class of help, and there has not been any attention paid to them and there is none now. When a man comes to the counting-room to let himself, he is not asked anything about his antecedents or his habits. If he is drunk they will hire him, and the next day, when he gets sober, he will come in. I have seen a man go into the counting-room drunk and be hired to come the next morning, when he was sober. He was a miserable fellow, not fit to live in any community. *Q.* Are you connected with the School Committee of the town? *A.* No, I am not on the School Committee. *Q.* Have you ever been? *A.* I have been elected, a few times,

but I never served. I am not very partial to town office, and I have kept out of it. *Q.* Do you know anything about the attendance of the factory children upon School? *A.* I have called the attention of the School Committee to the subject several times. There is a large percentage of the children about here, of schoolable age, *that are not in school.* They can be seen by taking the circuit of the streets about the village. I think I sometimes meet 25 children of schoolable age that are not in school nor in Mill. *Q.* Are there children in the mill below the legal age? *A.* I think there is no doubt about that. *Q.* Have you ever been called to attend children who were sick, not having met with accidents, but were sick from diseases engendered by having worked in the mill? *A.* I don't know that I have had any such particular diseases come under my observation. *Q.* What is the home life of these operatives, as far as you have known it, in your calls upon them, as a physician? *A.* It varies considerably among them. There is a good deal more comfort in some houses than there is in the next neighbor's house. That depends upon the character of the people themselves. *Q.* Do they mostly live in tenement-houses? *A.* Yes, they live almost wholly in tenement-houses. *Q.* How many families in a house usually? *A.* That varies a good deal. Down here, at Waterford, they have just built a few new houses, and in those (they are two-story houses), there are four families on a side, with a back and a front door to each house. There are four families on each side;—eight-family houses. They have a kitchen, and two small side-rooms out of the kitchen, that have to answer the purpose of bedrooms (they are about big enough to hold a bed), and a closet. The sink is right in the kitchen. That is the way the new houses are arranged, that have just been built. *Q.* Are the new houses better or worse than the old ones, as to convenience or room? *A.* They are not improved much in regard to rooms; they are pretty well crowded up. Tenants obtain their water from wells about the neighborhood. There is not a well to each house. There is one well over at Waterford, which I should think, supplied a good many houses and a good many families. Then they get their washing-water from the trenches, about town. The trench runs near the village; right along side of it. A very large quantity of the water used is got from the river. *Q.* What is the habit of the operatives as to temperance? *A.* I don't know how you could have it much worse than it is here. *Q.* You apply that remark to men and women both? *A.* Yes, the drinking habits here are extremely bad with men, women and children. I should include every party. I have seen children, three years of age, bloated up

with liquor. Strong beer is the drink of the children, mostly. The men and women drink a good deal of beer and a good deal of liquor, besides. I don't know that the children drink liquor, besides beer.

Q. What do you mean by liquor? *A.* The distilled liquors, rum, gin and brandy. Ale seems to be the common drink, and that is in their houses. They drink it at their meals, and the children drink it also at the table.

Q. Have the operatives here any associations of any kind, literary or benevolent? *A.* I believe there are one or two associations of that kind. There is one called the Shamrock Society, I think, which is a benevolent institution,—ex-

clusively Irish. *Q.* What are the habits of operatives as to attendance on church and public worship? *A.* Among the Irish, I think there is a very general attendance. The population is mostly Irish, only 300 or 400 Americans being here.

Q. Of what denominations are these? *A.* We have two churches, Congregational and Freewill Baptist. The Baptist Church is about run out; there is no clergyman here. They have maintained preaching, until within three months, but they have none now. The other church is thinly attended.

Q. Is there any course of lectures during the Winter? *A.* Not now. Some years ago, we had a good course of lectures and it was well sustained. *Q.* Any town library? *A.* Not public. We had a library, gotten up by the people, some years ago, containing 2,500 to 3,000 volumes. Besides these, the town has a few books on Agriculture, but not anything that amounts to much,—or that operatives would be likely to patronize.

Q. Are they a reading people? *A.* Not all, I think. Their general morals are pretty low. It is rather a low community here. *Q.* Does the Social vice—prostitution—exist, to any considerable extent? *A.* I don't know that there is so much of that, but so far as regards intemperance and a general disorderly spirit about the place, I think it cannot be surpassed by any town in Massachusetts.

If you spend a night or two here, especially Saturday, or Sunday even, you would get an idea of it, better than I can give you. The town is very deficient in anything that can be called a proper government. They have a few constables appointed, but, I believe, there is not one qualified to serve a precept. They pay no attention to the disorder that is prevailing about the place. If it was not for the deputy sheriff, I don't know how we should get along. He keeps a pretty good look out. You can judge of that by the number of cases we have had before our justice here;—*over 1,200 cases have been tried by him in three years.*

Q. What were most of those cases. *A.* Over $\frac{3}{4}$ of them were for drunkenness. I should like to have the legislature try to establish better order here. This con-

dition of things is partly owing to the fact that these operatives were ignorant and depraved before coming here, and, partly, to the fact, that the proprietors do not live in town. The mills are all operated by agents, except that now, the No. 1 Mill has recently had a new organization, and, I believe, a part of the proprietors are here; but, for years past, the proprietors have lived in Providence, and the Mills have been run by agents. I think they could have done a great deal better in hiring help. I don't see why they could not hire better help. The mill is in good order, and good order is kept in the mill. The operatives are kept under suitable restraint, until they leave the mill and go into the streets. The agent is a very systematic man and keeps things as they should be in his establishment. I was on the Board of Health, a few years ago, and I took occasion to look the place through. I began at the most distant house, and went through and examined them all from top to bottom. I found the Blackstone Company's premises in good order. *Q.* How did you find the houses of the other companies? *A.* Not in so good condition. I told the people I would take the office for a while without pay, for the sake of having the place put in some order; and, within three weeks, I laid 100 cases of nuisances before the selectmen. They commenced prosecutions and we had things in a little better condition for a while. *Q.* What are those other mills of which you speak? *A.* The Waterford,—the Woolen Mills down below here. The Cotton Mill has excellent order inside. *Q.* How are their houses? *A.* The agent means, so far as he can, to keep them in good order. If you should go through this village, in warm weather, in July and August, there is not a house you could go into, without meeting with cockroaches and vermin of all sorts. *Q.* Have there been any strikes since you have been here? *A.* There have been frequent strikes. More at the Woolen establishments down here than in Blackstone (Cotton Mills). *Q.* What is the most recent strike that you remember? *A.* There was a partial one quite recently, in No. 1 Mill—the large Woolen Mill. The operatives were about the streets, two or three weeks. I think they wanted higher wages, in a certain department. The Weavers all turned out, and, in fact, the Mill was stopped. *Q.* Do you know whether that strike was successful or not? *A.* I understood that they got the advance. This is a bad place. You have only to come and live here, for a week or two, to see it for yourself. The people of Massachusetts have always been boasting in regard to their State,—that it is the highest in educational tone, in moral tone, and in the purity of the habits of the people. But, notwithstanding that fact, I believe that our people—the majority

of those owning real estate,—would sign a petition to go into Woonsocket, Rhode Island. *Q.* Do you not coincide in the opinion that we are the best educated and highest in moral tone? *A.* I once entertained that view, but I wished, when I read Gov. Andrew's speeches (he always loved to dwell upon that side of the question), that he could come and live by the side of me, for a short time. It would alter his view. *Q.* Have you had any experience in any other manufacturing towns? *A.* I have some information and knowledge of the towns round here. I go to Uxbridge frequently. They have a better state of things there. Woonsocket, too, is preferable to this place; and it is owing to the better system of government there. *Q.* How is it that you, situated between Uxbridge, which, you say, is higher-toned than this place, and Woonsocket, which is higher-toned, that you, here in Blackstone, are so bad? *A.* It is owing to the character of the population. We have got a different population. For instance, they have, in Uxbridge, a larger proportion of intelligent citizens, than we have here. *Q.* What makes a citizen intelligent? *A.* Education, knowledge, information. I don't know as you can express it any better than by the phrase, educated men. *Q.* Then you consider this community not so well educated as the average? *A.* I should think not; not nearly so. I don't mean a knowledge merely of reading and writing, but evolving the best capabilities of a man in everything. *Q.* What is your opinion of the ventilation of the mills here, commencing with Blackstone? *A.* I should think the mills at Blackstone were as well ventilated as they could be, with such a structure as theirs. *Q.* What is the actual condition as to ventilation? *A.* I think it is imperfect; not a very good atmosphere. Several years ago, there was a number of girls, who came here from Maine and New Hampshire to go into the mills, as weavers; it was about the time they began to get in foreign help. These girls were here, perhaps, one or two years, and, in that time, they all got away, pretty much all of them sick. They came here healthy, florid looking girls, and they went away pale and sick. *Q.* What effect has this ventilation upon the health of the children employed there? *A.* It must have an unhealthy, weakening effect. *Q.* What is your opinion as to the employment of children in a mill, in regard to growth and the development of their physical natures? *A.* I should think it would interfere with and modify it entirely.

Testimony of an Operative.

Q. When did you first come to Blackstone? *A.* In 1866.

Q. What did you do about your provisions? *A.* I went to the

store and got what I wanted. Q. Did you have to give a power of attorney? A. I gave an order on the Company. Q. You didn't give a power of attorney? A. No, I gave an order on the Company for my wages to satisfy the trader, and handed the rest over to my mother and my wife. Q. On pay-day, who drew the wages? A. The storekeeper. Q. At the end of the month, was there any balance due you? A. Sometimes there was. Q. About how much would be the average? A. I usually left the women folks to settle it, and could not say. Sometimes, \$13. The first time there was a deficiency of about \$15. The second time I think it was all paid up. I went to Harrisville as second hand in a weaving shop, and they paid the bills, and if they wanted any money I gave it to them. Q. Who paid the bills? A. My wife. Q. When you went to Harrisville was there a deficiency against you at that time? A. Yes. Q. Who paid it? A. My wife. Up here at ——'s, there is something in my favor. Q. Did you give him an order? A. Yes, he has an order to take my pay. Q. Is that the rule among the operatives? A. It is now. The grocers have been deceived, and they will not trust you unless they are sure. I told him to take my pay and he did so. I worked eleven days and a half. Q. Does Mr. —— furnish you with provisions? A. Yes, everything. My mother keeps working and they keep making the debt as small as they can. Q. When you worked in Woonsocket, was that the rule there? A. They don't do it there. Q. How many rooms do you have in your house? A. Three. Q. How much rent do you pay? A. \$2.50 a month. Q. How much does it generally cost you for groceries and provisions alone? A. It don't cost us now more than \$4 a week, only my mother and me and the child. She works, and takes in quilting and sewing, and she buys little necessary things, and we don't make a very extravagant bill. It cost me when we were all together and keeping house between five and six hundred dollars a year to live right.

Visit to Southbridge.—Testimony of A. J. Bartholomew.

We have a population of somewhere in the vicinity of 5,800, and I suppose 2,500 of them are French, say about 50 per cent. of the population. They have increased, in the last five years, very considerably, but some have been here, in the mills, for the last 15 years, more or less.

Q. How long since the nationality of the operatives in the mills has changed? A. You may take 15 years ago, as about the time that the Yankees left the mills. They were superseded by the

Irish, to a certain extent; and all the time since that, the French have been working in. There have been three processes,—the American, Irish and French,—all within a period of about 15 years. To these may be added some Scotch operatives. Some one went to Scotland to get help, and got 60 or thereabouts; so many, that a man was sent to New York to meet them and bring them here. There must have been from 50 to 75. Most of them left within a short time, and I don't think there is an individual here now that came over then. They were Scotch girls and a few men. The majority of them, three-fourths or seven-eighths, were Scotch girls for weavers. *Q.* Was any cause assigned for their leaving? *A.* They had considerable sickness when they first got here, and, without doubt, that was the main cause of their leaving. *Q.* When the French began to be introduced, was there any prejudice against them from the other operatives? *A.* I don't think there was, I never heard of any. *Q.* Were they put into tenements with the other operatives, or by themselves? *A.* They have been mixed up; the same tenement-houses have been occupied indiscriminately, by the French and Irish. The former came here and occupied the first tenement they could get, without any regard to what it was, and I don't believe there has been any discrimination. *Q.* Was any attempt made by the Companies to restrain the Scotch people from going away? *A.* No, I think not. *Q.* Did they come under a contract? *A.* I think there was some arrangement (but still I don't know that fact), by which the Company defrayed the expenses of their coming, and they were to work that out. I think that was the extent of it. *Q.* When they left, were they paid any wages, or did that go to balance their indebtedness? *A.* I don't know about it from any officer of the company. I have only heard that they were to receive some money, and the balance of it was to go towards defraying the expense; but they were to be paid so much every pay-day, so as to give them some means, and the balance was to be applied towards the extinguishment of the debt. In case of their leaving, all the company could have would be that balance, and not the total amount of their wages; so they had something to go somewhere else with. *Q.* What is the system of payment adopted here? *A.* The companies, all of them, prefer, wherever they can, to pay directly to the operatives. That is, they discourage trustee-processes, and the giving of assignments and orders, and dissuade operatives from doing it. When persons apply to collect debts, they refuse to yield to them. Of course, they can't prevent an assignment, which is legally made and put on record, if an operative chooses to give it. It is only in extreme cases, where the

heads of families have no business calculation of their own. The families being large, and such as they wish to keep at work, they will in such cases, accept an assignment; but generally, they don't like to do it. They say the families are dissatisfied, and like to handle their own money. Q. Have any of the companies, either private or corporate, a store, at which the operatives are compelled to purchase or expected to purchase? A. No, they don't recommend their operatives to go to any particular store. Q. Since you have been here, have you known of any such thing? A. No, I never have known of any such thing. There has never been an instance, since the old Columbian Mill was burned out, some years ago. There was a store connected with that mill. It was burned out, and has never been rebuilt. Q. What are the hours of labor, per day? A. They reckon them about eleven hours; I suppose they cut off some on Saturday; I don't know how much. Q. Are children employed during those eleven hours? A. I don't know about that, definitely. Q. Does the boarding-house system prevail to any extent? A. There are two at the Globe Mills. I guess the Globe Company board nearly all their help, that are not married. The price of board is \$2.50 a week. Q. Does the company have a building which it lets for store purposes, and then favors the party hiring it by accepting orders on their operatives, and inducing new comers into town to trade there? A. No; not as a general thing. There may be instances where an order is taken, but there is no rule or practice, or policy, on the part of the company, to do any such thing as that. In fact, the company would do everything they could to prevent any such system. Q. Was that true some years ago? A. I don't know that there has been any change. Q. Last year we received testimony from a former Superintendent in one of your mills, to the following effect:—A paid order, with the bill, is, on pay day, handed over to the operative as so much cash, and if it absorbs all he has earned for the month, the paymaster says, "There is nothing due you;" if there be a balance, however, it is paid in cash; if the payment due on the bill is greater than the operative's earnings, the order is handed back to the trader with the amount paid endorsed thereon, and he gets another order on the next month's pay." Does such a system exist here now? A. There has been no such system in town since I have been here. There may be instances where a thing of that kind has been done, but they are unusual and against the policy of the company. Q. It was also said that "cases are quite common where orders exceed the amount of earnings, and the operatives are held, month after month

and year after year, with these orders hanging over them, never seeing a penny of their earnings, and tied down with the clog of debt."

A. I don't believe there is an instance that can be named of that kind.

[*Mr. Olney.* I once went to see the gentleman referred to particularly on that point. I said, "There is a man down here trading with me. He is poor, and somebody has got to trust him, and I don't want to trust him." The superintendent answered, "We can't give orders," or "We don't give orders, but you let him have what he wants, and *I will see it is paid.*" Consequently, I let the man have it, and lost my debt; and charged it to profit and loss.] *Q.* "If I went there

to-day, to hire family help, not one family in ten could get away, unless I gave them money to pay up, and then paid their passage from Southbridge to Lawrence. Wood and coal are bought and tenements are hired of the corporation, and the influence of the company seems to be exerted to keeps its people confined to the town."

A. It is true that the company used large quantities of coal and wood about their works, and it is more convenient for the operatives to go to the counting-room and say, "I want a cord of wood, or a ton of coal," than any other way, and they do furnish to their help coal and wood at cost. Mr. Olney of Southbridge now present, has been in the coal business, for the last two or three years, and knows about the terms on which they furnish coal. [*Mr. Olney.* If they have a cargo of coal come into this depot, and it costs \$9 laid down here, they will take that coal from the cargo, and carry it to the houses of their help and dump it in their yard for \$1.00, and sometimes 50 cts., whatever it costs. All they want to charge is barely the cost of it. To explain a little further. The class of men that buy have large families, and a good many of them have small children and are not earning great pay; and if they call at my yard and want a ton of coal, I say, "I am selling it for cash," and if they have not got the money to pay for it, they will go to the company and say, "I want some fuel," and the company will deliver it for just barely the cost of it.] *Q.* The cost was precisely what it cost to dump it into the coal-bins. [*Mr.*

Olney. The company undertake to furnish it cheaper than the dealers here. There is about \$1 25 difference between what I would furnish it at and what Mr. Ballard, the agent, would furnish it for.] *Q.* Do the French operatives here become citizens? *A.*

They have not heretofore. They have a naturalization society organized, and are in the process of becoming naturalized. More than that, the younger portion of them are buying lots and building houses. There is quite a number of land owners among the younger portion. The older ones are not becoming citizens, but the

younger French are, and taking an interest in our public matters, though they have quite an idea of a separate education. The French priest has recently organized two separate schools. *Q.* Evening or day schools? *A.* Both. The French are increasing and the Irish decreasing. They formerly had one church, and a French minister, and the Irish thought he spoke more to the French than to them—more in the French language than the English—and they objected. This brought about some feeling, and, on the change of priests, the French thought they would withdraw. The separation between the Irish and the French grew out of this change of priests; aided perhaps, by the difference of language. *Q.* Why does the French priest establish separate schools? *A.* The idea is to give them something of religious instruction in their way. *Q.* That is a virtual withdrawal from the public schools? *A.* He denies that, and claims that he does not intend to interfere with the public schools. He claims that they have not the pecuniary ability to support their schools, so long and regularly as the town supports its schools. *Q.* Does the town help them? *A.* It does not, and don't propose to do so. *Q.* Does the French priest speak English? *A.* Yes, he speaks it well. *Q.* Is it a private school, not under the cognizance of the School Committee? *A.* The Committee does not father it nor encourage it in any respect. *Q.* Is there any difference between the two races, Irish and French, in their interest in town affairs? *A.* I don't think that either take much interest, except that most of the Irish are voters, and vote, at regular elections, for their particular candidates; but generally, unless it be some particular matter that relates to some road or street near to them, they don't interest themselves much in public matters. I think there is, to-day, an indication on the part of quite a number of French young men, of taking an interest in public improvements, as there is also among the Irish. I have seen quite a number at our caucuses for the choice of delegates. Quite a number came in to see what was going on. Quite a number pay a good, liberal tax. *Q.* Do the French, as a class, use the Savings Banks? *A.* I don't think they do so generally as the Irish. I am on the board of Trustees of the Savings Bank, though I have never examined the book of deposits; but almost every Irishman has a deposit in the Savings Bank, and I know some French that have, but I don't know how general it is with them. *Q.* What is the difference between the two races, as regards temperance? *A.* I don't think there is much difference. The French have a temperance society organized, and it contains quite a large number of members, but males exclusively. It is the "St. John the Baptist Society." *Q.* Have they any other societies

except this? *A.* No, I think not, unless they have something in the church, that I don't know anything about. *Q.* Since the French have been employed here to any extent, have there been any strikes, or other movements of that sort? *A.* There were, I think, quite a number of years ago. There was one at the Globe, among the weavers, and I don't know but it extended through the town. *Q.* Are the operatives, French or Irish, or whatever they may be, becoming owners of real estate? *A.* They are continually buying, and the company have sold quite a number of lots to Frenchmen, who are proposing to build. Almost every mechanic in town now, is getting a lot. I think the operatives don't buy as much as the mechanics, although some of the operatives do, but not generally. The French mechanics in town, almost all of them, are buying lots and building houses. *Q.* Does the Savings Bank here give facilities for building? *A.* They encourage it all they can. *Q.* And make small loans? *A.* Yes, loan down to as small a sum as \$300. They prefer to aid that class of people, whenever they can.

*Testimony of an Employer (Calvin A. Page, of Southbridge,) on a Strike.
Reduction of Hours of Labor, etc.*

Q. How long have you been a resident of Southbridge? *A.* All my life, and a manufacturer, though at present my mill is not in operation. I am Agent of a regularly organized, incorporated company,—the Dresser Manufacturing Company. Our mill has been burned. *Q.* What was your rule in regard to accepting orders? *A.* We didn't like to accept them if we could get rid of it. If we did it, it was an especial favor to the help. We didn't like to do it. I always said, "I don't want you to give orders, because it will come pay day, and you will want some money." I used to get the ill will of the merchants in this way. *Q.* How many children did you employ in your mill, under 15? *A.* I could not tell. My mill was a small cotton mill, only employing 50 persons. *Q.* Since you have been a manufacturer, how many strikes have you experienced? *A.* We never have had any serious strikes in this town. In 1865, we were running our mills 13 hours, the operatives turned out for eleven hours, and the manufacturers immediately yielded; the thing was all settled and we went along without any trouble. *Q.* How long did the strike last? *A.* A couple of days, at Globe Village, before they settled. At the other mills it was settled right off. *Q.* Do you know whether previous to that the time had been reduced in Blackstone, or in the vicinity of this town? *A.* I rather think that that is

what set it agoing here, but I am not sure about it. Q. Since the reduction from 13 to 11 hours a day, what has been the diminution of your production, or has there been any? A. It is just about in the proportion of the time. I had a mill of fifty looms. We used to run 13 hours. I would get off 13,000 yards, and when we cut down to 11 hours we got off 11,000, a ratio of loss equal to the reduction in time. Q. What was the effect of this reduction on the wages; was there a corresponding reduction? A. No; there has been a constant increase of wages the last four or five years, a natural rise of wages, and the reduction of time had no immediate effect and no permanent effect, upon the wages. The hours have been shortened and the wages increased. In my mill the labor was all paid by the day, except the weaving. The day hands got more pay for short hours, and my production was less. The weavers got as much pay, because they got so much more pay per yard. They actually got more pay with fewer yards and fewer cuts than they had before. Q. First, you say, the reduction of hours from 13 to 11 caused an equal ratio of reduction in product; next, that the day hands received the same wages, and the piece hands received a larger price per cut, which gave them the same wages or more? A. Yes. Q. Since then the wages have increased? A. Yes. Q. You have then increased wages and reduced product. What has been its effect in the cost of the article? A. Taking the changeable market we have had, the last 4 or 5 years, there have been so many causes for rise and fall that you could not account for it. Q. What is the increased percentage of cost? You are manufacturing cloth and have reduced your product from 13 to 11, and have increased the cost of labor; what is the percentage of increased cost per yard? A. It would be about the same per cent. as this difference of production. Some other mill may show different results. Q. Have you since that reduction introduced any improved machinery? A. I have not; mine is a peculiar case. Q. Was your machinery at the time of that reduction old or new machinery? A. Old machinery. Q. Did you speed up your machinery? A. I did not. Q. Was it capable of being speeded up? A. It would not have borne much more. It was old. You can't speed up old machinery. It was 30 years old and upwards. Q. What was the nationality of your operatives, at the time of that reduction? A. Largely French. Q. What were their habits, as to temperance, &c.? A. They were a drinking people. Q. Has the reduction resulted in making them more or less intemperate, as a matter of fact? A. I think it has rather increased it. Q. Previous to 1865, the time of the reduction, had the French

operatives become owners of real estate to any extent? *A.* No. *Q.* Since 1865 have they? *A.* A good many operatives have. *Q.* Is there the same, or a larger or less percentage of ownership? *A.* The ownership of the French has shown itself more within the last 3 or 4 years. *Q.* Have the French operatives improved their condition since they have come into town? *A.* I think they have. *Q.* Do you think there is a steady advance in their intelligence? *A.* I do. There are a good many families that have remained in town and worked steadily in the mills. *Q.* At the time of your reduction, do you know of any towns where the longer hours were continued? *A.* They were in Connecticut. *Q.* Did your operatives leave your employ because of the reduction of time? *A.* No. *Q.* Did you find it more or less difficult to obtain operatives afterwards than before? *A.* I never found any difficulty, at any time. *Q.* Did the reduction drive off the operatives? *A.* No. *Q.* The statement heretofore has been that they would leave, because the reduction of time would cause them to earn less wages, and they would go where they could earn the most,—that the reduction of time would have a tendency to diminish the supply of operatives? *A.* I think that would be true if you passed a ten-hour law. *Q.* You think it would be true theoretically, but it has not been true as a fact? *A.* I don't think any of them would leave for a reduction for which they struck and got it. I don't think they would leave because they got what they asked for. *Q.* In your acquaintance with the French operatives, do they desire the education of their children? *A.* So far as my acquaintance is, they do not. They would rather have them in the mill than in the school-house. *Q.* Have they any education themselves? *A.* Not much. *Q.* What does "not much" mean? *A.* Very few of them can write their names. I used to have great difficulty in making the children go to school. The parents said they could not live if I made their children go to school. I would say, "You must go out, and go to school," and would find them out on the street. They would move down to Connecticut and we would lose the help. I used to try to comply with the law, but it drove off the parents. *Q.* As an employer, have you had any considerable experience with individual help; that is, the help of young persons who were not connected with families? *A.* Yes. *Q.* Which is the most frequent to change,—the family help or individual help? *A.* The individual help; it is a great deal more difficult to manage. *Q.* Which of the two sexes is most liable to change? *A.* I think the men. The French are peculiar people for changing. They want to be off after working awhile. That

causes the necessity of keeping back the two weeks' wages. If you did not, you would wake up in the morning and find your mill still.

Q. Can you give any reason for that? A. It is an uneasy feeling. They get money and want to go off,—perhaps go to a farm.

Q. Has this liability to change among the operatives, diminished or increased since your first commencing operations? A. There has been no great change. The French are a set that you have to keep the reins tight on. They are treacherous. You think you have got some good, reliable help and find yourself mistaken. They are much more treacherous than the Irish. Do the Irish a favor, and they will appreciate it; but you may do the Frenchman a favor, and he will get out of the way the next day. Q. When the French come to you for employment, how do you do in regard to informing them about the contract, or the agreement you make with them? A. We tell them in the first place, we will give them so much money; will pay them so often,—on the 15th; we say, “On the 15th you shall have your pay, but we shall keep back the wages from the first to the 15th, and if you go off without giving notice, *we shall pay you nothing.*” Q. Do they sign such contract, or make their mark on it? A. They never have done either. I got a book here for a heading to have them sign; I was going to adopt that rule before my mill was burned up, so as to have it in case of suit. Q. Have you been sued for wages? A. No. Q. Do you know of any cases where employers have been sued for wages? A. No; in town the companies have done in this way. A good many applicants came to collect bills; the companies put them off, but eventually paid; I never did pay. Q. Did you speak to them through an interpreter? A. Part of the time I had to, but generally I contrived to make them understand very well, and could understand them. I almost always found out, when they came into the office, what they wanted. Q. You have no doubt they understood the contract? A. I have no doubt of it. They knew all about it. They talked it over, and they knew before they left Canada. They know when they come into the mill that we require a fortnight's notice, and if they go away that they can't get pay for that fortnight *unless they fight for it.* Q. What was the condition of the market for your goods, in 1865, before the reduction; was it full or depleted? A. The business was good. It was the year after the war. It was an extra good year. We could not afford to stand about eleven hours when we were making a thousand dollars a week. They went out and said, “We want 11 hours,” and we said, “Go right in;” we could make up the loss while we were talking about it. Q. Were you at that time work-

ing extra hours? *A.* We could not do it; we could not get the operatives by paying for it. We would say, "If you will go in and work two hours we will pay you for it," but they would not do it. They got an idea that they were going to be cheated in some way; that they would be got at work and not be paid. They will work now, and all you have to say is you want them until nine o'clock, and will pay them, and they will do it. *Q.* So far as your knowledge goes, does the experience of the other manufacturers agree with yours in the matter of reduction of hours and reduction of production? *A.* I think it does. Men may tell you, "I get off as much now as I did under 13 hours," but you must take into account that he has looms with 160 picks, instead of 134. *Q.* You think their experience agrees with yours? *A.* I think it does, taking that matter of speed and improved machinery into account. *Q.* How many spindles had you? *A.* 3,000, and 50 looms running 120 picks per minute. Now they run 160. Mine were old looms that would not bear it. *Q.* How many yards did you manufacture per month? *A.* With 11 hours, 11,000; 13 hours, 13,000. *Q.* What effect did that depletion, or decrease of production of 2,000 yards have upon the market? *A.* I can't tell you. In December, 1864, Sherman took Savannah, and there came a great change. It knocked everything down; everything was prostrated until April, 1865, and then things took a jump. Cotton cloth took a jump from 15 to 30 cents a yard. It was not owing to natural results; it was a war effect. *Q.* Was not the effect that this decrease of production had upon the market, this;—you were over-producing, which overstocked the market and caused the depression? *A.* This took place in 1865, when the market was extra,—demanding all the goods we could make. *Q.* How long did that last? *A.* All through that year. This strike took place in 1865, and the goods went on the same prices all that year. After January, 1866, it began to fall off, and finally to grow poor and poorer, up to 1867 and 1868; these were bad years. *Q.* At that time were new mills started to any extent? *A.* Not a great many. *Q.* There was nothing then to make up for this decrease in production that you know of, in the starting of new mills? *A.* There was no mill in this town or vicinity that was started, and no increase of machinery in any of them that I know of. Referring back to the French mechanics being men that build houses, that is accounted for by the fact that they get very much larger wages than the Frenchmen who work in the mills. The latter are men of very ordinary capacity. They perform those parts of the labor where \$1.10 a day would be their wages, while the Frenchmen outside get \$2.50 to \$4.00. That is why the latter build houses.

Those men who are in the mills have not talent enough or capacity enough to fill the places outside. Q. What is the difference between the living, that is, as to groceries, provisions, clothing &c., between the French Canadian operatives and the mechanics; do they live any better, or in the same class of houses? A. The operatives in the mills live as well, if not better. There is no class in our town that dress as well as the French operatives. They come from Canada with Kentucky jeans, moccasins and straw hats, and after they have been here six months, they dress in style, and wear the nicest goods in the market. Q. Do they save anything? A. Not much. They take to dress, and they are better for the dry-goods stores than the Savings Banks. You may take every dry-goods store in Southbridge, and you will find they cater for the French trade instead of the Yankee trade. The Irish girls put their money into the Savings Bank, but even *they* dress very well. There is no class in our town that dress as well, on the average, as the operatives in our mills. Q. You say the French mechanics don't live as well as the French operatives? A. I don't mean to say that they don't live as well. I mean to say the French operatives live well. I think the mechanics are more likely to save their money and build houses. Those in the mills are more inclined to dress. Q. You say you used to resist trustee processes? A. Yes, and got the ill-will of my operatives. I can call to mind a man who has not spoken to me for ten years because I objected to his giving an order or assignment. Q. What amusements do these French people patronize? A. They love a circus dearly. We have to stop our mills and make a day for it. *I have always said these people need amusement.* I can go to Boston or New York, and step into a place of amusement any time. But here there comes along a circus, I say it is better for the help to go, and I believe in letting them go, and I say to them, "Stop all day and go to the circus." Q. You deduct it from their pay? A. Oh, yes. They ask it as a favor, and they are glad of it. Q. Do they attend any of our American festivals, cattle shows, concerts, &c.? A. Yes. Q. Would they go to a refined concert? A. No, they prefer a "nigger" show,—Jim Crow, and the like. Q. Do the French operatives patronize the stables? A. Extensively. Seven-eighths of the support of our stables come from them, and the lawyers and constables get fees the next day from their smashing up horses and carriages. Q. Your French operatives support the dry-goods establishments, stables and lawyers' offices? A. Yes, and circuses and negro shows. These French people are delighted to get here. They see their neighbors come here in rags, and come

back in silks and satins; and when they ask how it is, they are told, "We work in a mill." Q. Do they remain here, or return home to Canada? A. They generally remain. Once in a while one goes home. They may leave for a year or two and then come back. That is one great trouble here. They go back and forth. They come and stay a few years, take their money and go back, and put it into a farm, perhaps stay there a few years, rent it and not come back. They frequently go away and leave their debts behind them. I knew of a man that came back after two years, and went to the store and said he wanted to pay an old bill, and he did; though that is an exception to the rule. Q. Which is the best class to pay their bills,—the French or Irish? A. The Irish, two to one; they are more honorable. Speaking about these families coming from Canada, you have no idea how elated they are when they get a position in our mills. They feel that they are in a way to get good clothes; they feel just like boys getting into college. Q. In regard to the schooling of children; is that a matter generally looked after by manufacturers? A. So far as they can. I used to try to do it. I wanted to observe it as much as I could. There is no disposition to violate the law, but it is impossible to live up to it; but if you are going to run 11 hours, you must have all the help 11 hours. I could weave all that I could spin, and the moment I stopped the spinning, I stopped my looms. If I took out my small hands I stopped my looms. I could not take out the small help and leave my adult help running. Q. How about employing children under ten years of age? A. I never would do it if I could avoid it; *but the French will lie to you.* They will send children to you and declare they are older. I don't think there are any children employed intentionally, that are under ten. I never would do it if I could help it. Q. Do the children of the factory operatives average in size and in their physical development as high as the children of the mechanics that are not employed in the mills? A. Yes, and are as vigorous and healthy. I have seen them coming out of my mill after they have been at work, turning somersets and running. Q. Are they as well developed? A. Yes. Q. Is that true of the Irish? A. They are not very well developed, in or out of the mill. They are a sort of puny race somehow or other. Q. You could judge very well of the children if they were like other children in health and size and vigor,—you could judge of the age by comparison? A. Yes; I used to tell my Frenchmen, "We have a law that we can't employ children under 10 years of age," and the next day they were all 10.

Testimony of Ezra Lamoreux of Southbridge.

Q. What is your occupation? A. I am a contractor, employing men to work at carpentering and house-building. Q. Are you acquainted with many French Canadians employed in the mills here? A. Yes, with a great many. Q. How long have you worked here in Southbridge? A. Most of the time, for 20 years past. I was away 7 or 8 years, in the meantime. I was out of the State 4 years. I went back to Canada and returned here again. Q. In what capacity did you first come to work here in Southbridge? A. First, to work in the Globe Mill, under Mr. Ballard. Going in the morning, I worked, I think, 14 or 15 hours. At five, went to breakfast. Had 30 minutes for breakfast, and 45 for dinner. Had supper after shutting down at nights. I worked there about 6 or 7 months and had about \$15.00, a month, wages. Was 16 years old at the time. Could speak English some, but could not read it much. Was just picking up the language. I saved nothing from my wages there. Q. What did you do next? Went to shoemaking at West Boylston, and afterwards at Middleboro'. Then my parents came, and we went to work together in a mill. Then, we moved to this place, and stayed here 19 years, excepting two years in Manchester and four years in Canada. I have learned the trades of shoemaking and carpentering; working at the former in winter and at the latter in summer. I worked at shoemaking ten to eleven hours, and eleven, at carpentering. At last I quit shoemaking altogether, and kept at carpentering. My countrymen prefer to work at mechanical labor, if they can get it, rather than in a mill. Q. What are the wages of carpenters now? A. They vary a great deal. Some get from \$2.25 to \$3.00 a day; some get less than \$2.00; but they can hardly be called carpenters. Q. How much do French operatives in the mill get—the men? A. They say \$1.00 or \$1.25. That is not the average of all the operatives, but of the men only. Q. Do French Canadian mechanics put their children at work in the mills? A. But few of them. Most of them are unmarried. Q. Do many of your countrymen,—those working for day wages—build and own houses? A. Yes. Within about two years, 12 or 15 or more of them have built or bought in the neighborhood. Q. Do many of the operatives in the mill, as a rule, save money? A. They did, formerly,—but do not now, because wages are reduced to the lowest point, and those only can save who have big families to help them. Q. Take a married man, with children so small that they cannot work in the mill; can such a man save money by working in a mill at present wages? A. I think not. There is a good deal of difference in people. Some, by

pinching pretty close, would save on \$1.25, where others with \$2.00 would not. *Q.* Do your people, as a class, send their children to school? *A.* Not very promptly. That is one fault with our nation. They have not learned the use of it. But it is growing better, especially with the young people. They are more apt to send their children to school than the old folks. Their old folks, at home, were at some distance from schools, did not send them to school, and they gathered up considerable money and bought farms. So they say "It is no use; we can get along without schooling as well as they did," and that habit of not sending children to school they brought with them here. *Q.* Were you here at the time the hours of labor were reduced from 15 to 13? *A.* Yes, and the people seemed to be generally satisfied with that reduction, and live as well after that as before. *Q.* Were they more, or less, intemperate after the reduction? *A.* I have heard that it was an improvement. *Q.* Are the young people becoming interested in matters of the Town and State, and desiring to become naturalized citizens? *A.* They do not. They will pretty soon. It has been pretty hard work to persuade them to be naturalized. I have been preaching that to them for two years, as smart as I could, but they don't seem to take to it very quick. Only 15 or 20 of us are voters now. We tried to form a naturalization society, but failed in that attempt. *Q.* Have you any private schools of your own? *A.* Yes, and we are now building a large school-house; and have a teacher of our own nationality. *Q.* Do you know what studies are being taught in the school? *A.* In general, only the youngest children go to it, and simple things are taught; but some quite grown children, also, go to it. There has been an evening school, which, I believe, is running yet, and conducted by the priests. *Q.* Do they learn English studies? *A.* No, altogether French. They learn no English. This school is for ourselves, where we send our children in vacation times. I send my children to the English school when that school keeps, and when it closes, give them a little vacation and then send them to the French school. *Q.* How much of an English education do the French families, as a general thing, give their children? *A.* Not enough by any means. If they go five months it is more than I think they go. *Q.* Do you know anything about the system of payment in the mills? *A.* It is monthly; about the middle of the month. *Q.* Have you never heard complaints from your French people about the method of payment. *A.* Not much. Once in a great while they find fault, and when it is their own fault. I think the mills here, as a rule, are in good hands. *Q.* Where do most of the French buy their gro-

ceries; at what store? *A.* At all the stores. But in the course of a couple of months our own people will soon have a grocery store, and would now, if they could find room for it. *Q.* What store do they principally patronize for dry goods? *A.* A few years ago, I think, they patronized Edwards & Co., more than others, but now they seem to go from one to another, and to have no preference for any particular store. They have got at all the stores French clerks, and so it is convenient for us to trade at one as well as another, and we have a chance to pick out goods as we please, and their prices. *Q.* Are there not a good many so poor, that, if the school law were put it in force, they would lack the means of livelihood? *A.* I look at it in this light. Suppose *a family comes here and begins to learn to work. The first month the corporation will give them certain pay, and will ask them, "Well, how did you come out? Have you paid your bills at the store?" "No, I hadn't quite enough," and they began to cry, so as to get more. The next month they give them a little more. When they find they have about enough to live on, they shut down and will not give any more. That is about the management.* *Q.* Do the employers ever say to a party making such complaint, that he ought to send his children to work to help him? *A.* I have never known any such case, but there are children that work in the mill that could and ought to go to school. There is another thing. Some families have children, not in the school-house, but on the street, that should and ought to go to school. That is where this law ought to be enforced. In the city of Worcester, and in some other cities, there are officers who if they find children about the streets that are of age to go to school, send them there. *Q.* How would the French population stand any measures to compel their children to go to school? *A.* I suppose they would have to submit. Some of them might grumble about it. *Q.* How would it work if there were evening schools and they were required to attend them to learn the English language and English studies, those who are too poor to go in the day time; or, say, work half a day and go to school half a day, or go to school in the evening? Take the poor families who must have the wages of the children; suppose they were required to send their children to school half a day or in the evening, on pain of losing their employment? *A.* I think they would submit.

Testimony of George Ballard—Agent of Globe Mill, Southbridge.

We have many persons in our employ who are buying real estate and paying for it. I sold a house lot, this morning. I have

sold five, within a week, to operatives in the mill. *Q.* What nationality? *A.* French, mostly. Persons who have been here several years. We have also a good many Yankees, that are owning the houses they live in. *Q.* Do you know how often you change, not the entire number, but comparatively the entire number, of the employés; how often do they change,—that is, a set of operatives? *A.* A portion of our help has been here a long time, owning property, and their home is here. Another class changes more or less frequently; some is of a floating character and constantly changing. *Q.* Which nationality changes the most frequently? *A.* The French. We have a few Germans,—though not many. *Q.* Do men or women change the oftenest? *A.* I don't know. *Q.* Unmarried or married persons? *A.* I should think unmarried persons would change the oftener; it is less inconvenient for them to change. *Q.* Any particular occupation or room in which the change is more frequent? *A.* No, not in proportion to the number employed. I suppose we have a larger class of help that has stayed here many years than almost any mill. We have a good many persons that have been here for 20 years. *Q.* That would not be the majority? *A.* No, not the majority; but, in visiting other mills, I find they have not anybody that was there 20 years ago. We have a great many, but as I said before, one thing that accounts for it, is that they have bought property here and their homes are here. *Q.* What is your system of arrangement in regard to the school law; what is the system by which you enforce that law? *A.* Our overseers, at each term of our school, are required to inquire whether the children in their employ have been to school the required amount of time, and to make the changes that are necessary to send them out. I don't pretend that they always do it. We do it, about as near as we can. *Q.* Are any checks or certificates required to prove that they have been to school? *A.* No. Overseers know in regard to the children in their rooms whether they have been in school or not. We follow that as a general rule, but we sometimes have a case, though not often, where the parents think their children can't go to school. They have been here but a little while, and are just getting into the mill, just getting to work, and I don't see how they can; I don't see how they are to live. We sometimes pass over some of those cases, but generally speaking, we intend to and do have them go out to school.* *Q.* Have you any rule in regard to age? *A.* No, nothing except the requirements of the work. Our mill is a woolen mill, mostly. We can't employ so much small help as a good many mills. We have

* Six months' residence is allowed before going to school.

a few children (it is difficult to tell these French children's ages), and may have a very few as young as ten years. Q. What is your opinion of the establishment of a uniform system of certificates throughout the State to be shown by each child when he comes to work, that he has been to school the required time, and compelling the children to go to school? A. The cases I have alluded to have always been in mind. I don't know what some families would do unless their children worked. The system could be carried out generally, but there would be exceptions. It seems to me it would be very unjust, and almost cruel; unless the town should support them, though those would be exceptionable cases. Q. Would these exceptions be any more general than the exception to all law; does not all law affect some exceptional individuals unfavorably? A. I suppose it does. Q. The law is to be made for the rule and not for the exceptional cases. A. But if there was to be such a law, some provision ought to be made by which it could be carried out without cruelty to parties. Q. In your opinion is it any more cruel to sacrifice a few than it is to sacrifice the many by bringing them up without education? A. I could not approve of bringing up the children without education. Q. If it is a question which of the two to choose, you would prefer the education? A. I am not sure it should be a question between the two. I think both questions ought to be attended to. Q. Have the school committee of this town ever visited your mill to look after the employment of children? A. I am not aware of any professional visits of that kind. I think it is very important that children should be educated. I alluded to these cases because we have had one or two of them come up where I didn't see how we were to obey the law and be fair to the people. *People are not always to blame for being poor.* Q. How long do you run your mill; how many hours a day? A. Eleven. Q. Do the children work the full length of time? A. Yes, I say, yes; but most of our children probably don't work half the time they are in the mill. Q. Are they not always confined in the mill during mill hours? A. Not always; some are and some not. Q. Is there any different arrangement of time for them? A. Not specially. Q. In case of accidents in your mills, do you, as a rule, pay the wages of the operatives during their sickness? A. No. Q. Do you pay for medical attendance? A. Not generally. In some cases of accidents we have paid. We don't in sickness. Q. When you first came to Southbridge, what was the rule as to hours of labor? A. They went into the mill at half-past five; out to breakfast and dinner and work until seven o'clock. We reduced to eleven in 1865. Q. From what number of hours

did you make a reduction? *A.* I think 12 hours. *Q.* Was there a corresponding reduction in production? *A.* Yes. *Q.* Was there also a reduction of wages? *A.* *No, there was no reduction of wages.* *Q.* How was it with regard to those who worked by the piece? *A.* *Their wages were increased, so it amounted to about the same thing.* *Q.* Has there been any increase of wages since then? *A.* Only in individual cases; no general increase. *Q.* Have they been diminished at all? *A.* No; there has been no diminution. In some individual cases they have been raised, but there has been no general change.

Testimony of Samuel C. Hartwell, M. D.

Q. Have you any opinions or data in regard to the influence of mill occupation in inducing intemperance? *A.* I will answer in a general way: as a rule whatever tends to depress the vitality and *render the social condition unhappy*, tends directly to intemperance.* *Q.* Do you know of any occupation that does that more than any other? *A.* I am not able to answer that question. There are certain employments that have always been performed by intemperate men. There is an opposite reason for the one I am going to mention as an illustration. The machine printers used to be universally intemperate; they are not so now, but that was because they got large wages, and brought their habits with them from Europe. That is from the opposite condition. *Q.* Does the getting of large wages tend to intemperance? *A.* In that particular instance, they brought with them their intemperate habits. All the wool-sorters used to be intemperate. They all got good wages every one of them. It is not so now; they are all temperate. *Q.* What is the reason? *A.* The wool-sorters of 1825 to '30, and '30 to '36 were all foreigners, pretty much all Englishmen, all beer drinkers. When they came here, they made their own beer. They were intemperate men. Now, I believe, they are all temperate. A great many now are foreigners, and descendants of intemperate men. Some of them are Americans. *Q.* You don't mean direct descendants? *A.* Some of them. *Q.* The majority of them? *A.* No, I should think not. I don't know as I can account for the improvement. I said that certain occupations were always filled by intemperate men. Those two came to my mind, because they have been identified with intemperance in my memory. *Q.* Do you think their occupations were the cause of their intemperance? *A.* I said that *whatever tended to lower the social condition or*

* Prov. 31, 7: "Let him drink and forget his poverty and remember his misery no more."

render it unhappy, or to degrade the physical condition, that is, to take away a sufficiency of aliment, a sufficiency of means of livelihood, directly tended to intemperance. Then I said, there are certain occupations that are always filled by intemperate men; and, as an illustration, I instanced those two occupations. If I were to go any further I should say, as the next thing that occurs to me, that those who work in wet and cold places, were always intemperate. The men that washed the wool, who did the worst work about the print works and in the dye-house,—those were intemperate. I should say those men were intemperate who perform labor physically exhaustive, and those who are exposed to extremes of heat and cold. These ideas come to me as I talk; I have given them no reflection, but am very positive as to the cause. I believe intemperance is just *as surely the growth of deteriorated physical and moral condition, as fungus is from a continuance of wet weather*. Q. Did you read the article on intemperance in our last Report? A. Yes, with a good deal of interest. Q. How does your opinion agree with the statements there? A. As a general thing, I agree with them. Upon the question of the employment of children (I don't care whether in corporations or private establishments, or private labor),—and the education of children to us here in this town *is a very important question*,—we have a flood of them, and so far as we can find out, the parents don't give us the needed information with exactness, for two reasons: in the first place they want to conceal the facts, and in the next place they do not understand the English language, and they are not able to tell us how many children they have between certain ages. We have 1,300 to 1,500 children in this town of school ages. The whole attendance upon the schools,—*the whole greatest average attendance is not much more than one-third of that*. The greatest whole attendance is about 1,000.* I don't think the mills pay sufficient attention to the law in regard to schooling, but the French are evidently undertaking to evade the law by establishing the French Parish School. They are not going to learn any English. It is more of a religious school, and it is a matter that excites a good deal of anxiety among thinking people. Their priest don't exactly understand that there is a bar in the way of carrying out all he undertakes. He thinks he can carry it out. They made a claim for one of the school-houses, (they had one of the school-houses for a term, during vacation) and wanted it independent of the supervision of the school committee. It is only for religious instruction and perhaps for learning their letters.

* The Report of the Board of Education (1872) is less favorable.

Let me observe that what I say in regard to the influence of the factory system upon the health, vigor and welfare of children, I want applied *just as rigidly to the common school system as to the factory system. Both are killing the children all over the State.* I will go into schools here and pick out children, and say to their parents, "If you don't take your children home, they will die." Don't let us lose sight of one great evil in undertaking to correct another. *We have too many hours of close confinement for young children.* Two hours and a half a day is as long as the attention of young children can properly be confined. Q. What is your opinion of the effect upon children between the ages of ten and fifteen, of working part of the day, say five hours, at some employment, and being in school two hours and a half? A. That is to me a new question, but *I think it is worth while to try it.* A man can't labor with mind and body both. Every poor young man that ever undertook to study hard and work too, found that it is a law of nature that you can't draw upon your vital forces in two directions, without feeling it at the fountain-head. I think we might meet the difficulty in this State by adopting the half time system, advocated in your Report, *a short session of school with a short half day's work,* to the decided advantage of the children. That would give them plenty of interval for out-door exercise and recreation. Q. Does the constant change of the operative from one place to another—the constant removal that we have stated in our testimony—does that account, in any way, for the difficulty of getting at the facts in regard to the operatives? A. Undoubtedly, that complicates the difficulty of getting at the facts; this non-continuity of employment. Q. So injury may have been effected without our being able to get at it? A. If you look at it in that particular, I think facts enough can be gathered to show there is nothing in that source worthy of consideration. It does not have anything like the effect that constant and close application to close work has upon the eyesight. Q. What effect upon the eyesight of operatives has watching delicate threads of cotton. A. In operatives we don't see much of a defect of eyesight. When you come to girls, working on sewing machines, it is another matter. There, we do, and, in conclusion, I believe if the present factory system continues, we will have in Massachusetts, within 20 years, if this class of population becomes fixed, an ignorant, vicious and uncontrollable mass of people, such as Massachusetts never saw in her whole history.

Testimony of John B. Moore.—Danvers.

Q. What is your age? A. Thirty-six (36). Q. What is your employment? A. Spinning Carpet-yarn. Q. What is your nativity? A. English. Q. How long have you been in this country? A. Twenty-two (22) years. Q. Have you worked at the same employment all the time? A. No, sir. Q. What have been your different employments? A. Shoemaking, soldiering and spinning. Q. How long did you serve as a soldier? A. During the whole of the late war, excepting the first three months. Q. Describe the nature of your present employment, and the premises of the mill in which you work,—outside and inside,—in every particular? A. My work requires constant application and rapidity of motion. There is no “let-up.” The mill is, I suppose, one of the lowest order to be found in the State, so far as sanitary condition and improved machinery are concerned. I should set it the very lowest. This is not, perhaps, owing altogether to the avariciousness of the employers, but, in part, to the nature of the work. Carpets are the coarsest work of all the woolen manufactures. Blankets come next. The wool is all unwashed. It is scoured in the yarn, because the wool is of such a dirty nature it would cause great waste to scour it in that. Our floor, I should say, had on it an average of one-quarter ($\frac{1}{4}$) to one-half ($\frac{1}{2}$) an inch of dirt, gum, oil and dust. The mill is about one hundred and fifty (150) feet long, by about thirty (30) feet wide. I should think it might be twenty-five (25) feet high, to the plate. The rooms are about nine (9) feet high.

Q. How many persons, altogether, are employed in your part of the mill? A. Fifteen. Q. How many of them are children under fifteen? A. I cannot say, exactly. The number varies, but will average eight, being at all times below fifteen. Q. Are there any under ten? A. I think not. I do not know of any. Q. Have those under fifteen had their required schooling, during the past year? A. No, sir. There is no regard whatever paid to the school law. The question is never asked. Q. What are the regulations of the mill as to hours of labor? A. They stop the mill at twenty minutes past six, and ring out at half past. This really makes sixty-seven hours a week. Q. Are the children employed during that full time, and not let out when ten hours' work is done? A. Yes, sir.

Q. What effect has the employment upon the health of the operatives in the different rooms? A. I don't know how I should describe it. Hardly any work there enough to *undermine* their health. Q. What is the average length of time that the employées

work in the mill? How often do they change? *A.* I can hardly answer that with confidence, there is so much unsteadiness about their stay. There is shoemaking in town for boys, and a great deal of stitching on machines, for girls. Their wages in the mill are very low—some ten to sixteen dollars a month,—and as soon as the children are old enough they leave; the girls going to stitching-machines and the boys to shoemaking. They leave of their own accord, as soon as they can better themselves. I know of but two cases of long standing employment. *Q.* Do the men change often? *A.* The work is such that old men can do it, and I cannot state what effect it may have on their life. We have men working there, who are eighty-three or eighty-four years old. It is handloom carpet-weaving. Half our people are over sixty. *Q.* How is the picking room? *A.* That is very unhealthy. We had three men die there from congestion of the lungs, as the Doctor said. It was during the war, when I was not at home. The Doctor said it was caused by inhaling the dust. It seems to us that there is some poison in the wool which carries people off so quickly.

Q. What is the condition of the surroundings of the mill, as to outhouses, etc.? *A.* Very bad indeed. The privies are close to the mill and have no doors. They once had doors but now have only a sort of screen. There are no seats, and nothing but a rail to sit across. The privy for females *has no door at all, but only a piece of bagging to screen them from the public gaze. It is in plain sight of the street, and you can see the women sitting there as you go along.* [This is true. We have seen the condition of these privies. BUREAU.] *Q.* What is the condition of the tenement-houses in the place—the tenement houses belonging to the corporation? You say they are below the average in other places. That is not satisfactory, for the average of other places may be wrongfully low. When we compare one place with another and say that this is better than that, it may be that both are so bad the “better” does not amount to much. Are they what they *ought to be* for the comfort of those who live therein. *A.* No, sir. They are not. Yet it is hard to suit tenants always. Sometimes, they are destructive, and it is hard to keep things just as they ought to be. The condition of things does not always come to the knowledge of the employer, though I don’t think he looks after them so sharply as he should do. *Q.* What is the principal nationality of the persons working in your place? *A.* There is but one American at work on the premises, so far as I know. He is the engineer. The rest are English, Irish, Scotch and German. *Q.* How many,

who work there, own houses?* *A.* Including myself, there are six. *Q.* What is the average value of their property? *A.* I should say twelve hundred dollars (1,200) each. *Q.* What is the average wages of those six men, counting yourself? *A.* Forty-five or fifty dollars a month. *Q.* What is the average number of years those six men have worked there? *A.* The longest time is twenty-five years; the shortest, six. The average of all, I should say, fifteen. *Q.* Have any of those six men been engaged during that time in any other employment? *A.* Four of them have. *Q.* Has any of them but yourself served in the army? *A.* One of them did. *Q.* Did you pay any of the purchase money for the house you own, from the money received for service in the army? *A.* Yes, sir. Five hundred dollars. *Q.* Did the other party pay any of his purchase money, from his pay in the army? *A.* I cannot say, with certainty, but am pretty sure that he did; though he never told me so directly. *Q.* Are those houses free from mortgage? *A.* Mine is, I cannot tell about the rest, but think they are. *Q.* Have these parties had any one else to work for them? *A.* Yes, sir. They had families, and their wives worked. Other members of all their families have also, at some times, worked for them. *Q.* What are the opportunities for saving, which men or women have, who are engaged in that mill, from their individual earnings,—not including those of any other member of the family? *A.* I don't think there is any one who can save anything,—all things considered. I know I could not begin to keep my family on my own earnings, through the year, though I earn as much as any of them and even more. *Q.* How much are the united earnings of your family now? *A.* When my girl works, she earns as much as I do, and more. She works more than half the year. *Q.* What does she work at? *A.* She runs a stitching-machine. Last month her earnings were fifty-four dollars and fifty-six cents (\$54.56). *Q.* How much would the average earnings of your family be in a year? *A.* I think now, since she is at work, it would be eight hundred dollars (\$800). *Q.* How much, not counting your house, or any rent, does it cost you to live, a year? *A.* It has cost us all we have ever earned. I kept an account of the cost of shoes, last year. It was fifty-six (56) dollars, and, I think, we wore out thirty-one (31) pairs. *Q.* How much

* An overseer in one of the factory towns visited, stated, that, in his neighborhood, at that time, the operatives *did not consider it good policy to become owners of real estate, because, if they did, advantage would be taken of them by their employers, in this way.* "You are tied down here by real estate, and I can press you with hard terms" He said the policy, with him and his associates, was not to be embarrassed with any such property, which would hinder them from starting off and going elsewhere.

of a family have you? *A.* Seven. Five children, my wife and myself. *Q.* Have you kept account of other items of expense? *A.* I trade in a co-operative store. My average account there for West India goods and groceries, excluding dry goods, was twenty-seven dollars and fifty cents (\$27.50) a month. *Q.* Did that account include provisions? *A.* No, sir. Simply flour, sugar, tea, etc. Meat was extra. *Q.* How much did your provisions cost? *A.* I cannot say. We raised a large part of our vegetables. My wife does the gardening. Our meat bill will run, I think, about seven dollars (\$7) a month. *Q.* Do you keep pigs and hens? *A.* I keep an abundance of hens and have a plenty of eggs. *Q.* Do you kill a chicken occasionally? *A.* I kill them all and never sell any. Since Thanksgiving, I have killed upwards of twenty hens. *Q.* In the case of those men who own houses, when were the houses purchased? How long ago, for instance, was the last one purchased? *A.* I should say, it was about ten years ago. One has been bought since, which I have not counted in. It was bought within a few days. All these houses, excepting two, were earned outside of factory work.

Q. Have you had any experience in depositing money in a Savings Bank? *A.* Not any. I never had a cent to deposit. *Q.* Do you know of any men who have deposited in Savings Banks? *A.* Not certainly. I know only by rumor that one or two men have money deposited. *Q.* How much would a man, in your place, be likely to deposit at one time, from a month's earnings? *A.* I can give no opinion about it. *Q.* Could they deposit fifty dollars out of a month's earnings? *A.* No, sir. That is more than they earn. *Q.* Could they deposit twenty-five dollars, and pay their bills? *A.* No, sir; I don't think they could deposit anything and support their families. *Q.* There are some who have deposited, and the question is, about how much they would be probably able to deposit. Could it be over twenty-five dollars, in any one month? *A.* No, sir, nothing like it. *Q.* What is the price of board in Danvers? *A.* I think it is five dollars per week. *Q.* What would be the rent of your house? *A.* It ought to bring one hundred dollars a year at the least calculation. *Q.* At what do you value your house? *A.* Twelve hundred dollars (\$1,200). *Q.* Your rent ought to be ten per cent., or one hundred and twenty dollars. Could you hire that house for less than one hundred and twenty dollars? *A.* No, I don't think I could. Although my house is as good as any of them, it is in a poorer locality, and would not bring so much. I should not set the value of my house alone, at more than one thousand (1,000) dollars. I set the average of all

the houses at twelve hundred dollars. Q. Would not that bring you rent at about one hundred (100) dollars? A. Yes, sir.

Q. When and where did you commence the life of an operative? A. I commenced in England. I could not tell in what year, I was so young. I don't know when I began. Q. How old do you suppose you were? A. I should say, I was ten years old. I know I could not have been older, because I came here when I was thirteen, and had worked two or three years before that. I first worked at Manchester, and was what is called a "scavenger,"—that is, one that cleans up machine mules. Q. How much pay did you get for that, per week, or per day. A. Six shillings and twopence, a week. Q. How often were you paid? A. Weekly, on Saturday night. Q. Was your pay made to yourself or to your parents? A. I had no parents living. It was paid to myself. Q. How many were there in your father's family when all were together? A. Our family was so much broken up, it would be hard to tell. I lodged with my brother who was about twenty-five (25). He married after I came to this country. Q. What were the hours of labor at that time? A. I think we began at five o'clock, A. M., and worked till seven at night. Q. How much time had you for meals? A. We stopped half an hour for breakfast, an hour for dinner, and half an hour for "bagging,"—that is, the afternoon lunch,—the tea time. Q. Was that eaten in or out of the mill? A. In the mill. Breakfast was sometimes had out of the mill. We ate supper at home, after we got through work,—at eight o'clock. Q. At what hour did you leave off on Saturdays? A. Four o'clock. Q. How many nights' a week did you work? A. Three, certainly. Q. Did the ten-hour law come into operation, while you were at work in England? A. No, sir. It was after I left. Q. When you came to this country, what did you first do? A. I went to school, one Winter. Then, I went to Assabet and worked, one year, tending cards. Q. How many hours, a day? A. Thirteen. Q. How much were you paid, a week? A. We were paid monthly. I got fifty cents, a day. Then I went to Saxonville, and worked at the same kind of work—tending cards, and received fifty-five cents, a day. Q. How many hours, a day, did you work there? A. Thirteen. Q. How long did you work there? A. I think it was a year or a year and a half; and, then, I went to Templeton, for about a year. I worked, over a year, at the same work, and the same hours, for about the same pay. Then, I came to Danvers, to work at shoemaking, in 1852; and went to the war, in 1861. Q. How much did you earn, at shoemaking? A. I cannot tell precisely how much. I always earned a

comfortable living. *Q.* Were you able to save anything? *A.* The possibility of saving anything never entered my mind. Perhaps, I might have saved something, if I had tried. I never tried. I found shoemaking did not agree with my health, and thought I would try the old business in a factory, only at a different job,—something a little higher,—and, instead of tending cards, I went to spinning. I paid about five hundred (500) dollars on my house, from my pay as a soldier, and the rest of the purchase money my wife had, before we were married. I never paid five cents towards the house, out of my own earnings over and above the keeping of the family. If I must have earned the house by my own labor, I should never have owned it.

Q. In the case of the other men, do you know whether their wives earned any of the property, before they were married? *A.* I do not. They are all hard-working women, now, and have been so ever since I knew them. Our general cry is for a ten-hour law. Every one is sighing for that, and would like to have it, irrespective of the reduction of wages. They want the time cut down to ten hours, and would let the wages settle themselves. *Q.* Do you think, if the hours of labor were reduced, the wages would be reduced? *A.* No; decidedly not. I believe, if the time was reduced to ten hours, it would have no more effect on wages, than the reduction from twelve or thirteen hours has had. This is only a bugbear to try and frighten working men with. They are told, that, if the time is reduced, it will reduce their wages, and some are blind enough to be unable to see differently. I think this feeling is universal among the men and women employed, and some of their employers say that ten hours is long enough for work. *Q.* Have any accidents occurred, in the mill where you work, from unprotected machinery? *A.* There have been two, since I have been in the village. One was the case of a girl, who received an axe upon the top of her head, fracturing her skull, from the indirect effects of which she died. I believe she had got partly over it, but took cold, in some way, and died from lockjaw. But it was, indirectly, the effect of the fracture of her skull. Another case was in consequence of being wound around a shaft. A man got caught, by the sleeve of his shirt, in a set-screw, and his arm and then his body were wound around the shaft. The Doctor said, that if he had been any other than an Irishman he would have been killed five times over. The wool comes in bales, bound up with iron hoops, about an inch wide. They have an old axe for striking these hoops and breaking them, so that the wool may open out. That axe ought, of course, to be kept in its proper

place. In the case of the poor girl, the wool had been picked ready to put down the hole where the cards receive it, and this axe had been left among the wool. When the children down below, who are feeding into the cards, want more wool,—their box being empty,—they rap with a broom, or some other thing, for the picker-man to put down more. This girl had rapped for the picker-man, and he had not paid attention to her. Finally, she put her head up and cried out, and, just at the moment, the man shoved down more wool, and the axe among it struck her upon the head. In our mill, there is, comparatively, but little machinery. We have only hand-looms; and there is no other but hand-machinery in that part of the mill. Q. Are the belts protected? A. It is only a horizontal line of shafting all above.

Testimony of Gilbert A. Tapley, of Danvers.

Am Treasurer of the Danvers Carpet Company, which has existed since November, 1864. My father built the Mill, about 25 years ago, exclusively for Carpets and Yarns. Q. What is the area of your premises? A. About an acre. We employ about 85 persons, $\frac{3}{4}$ men, $\frac{1}{4}$ women and children; about 12 of the latter. We run our machines 11 hours a day, and the children are employed within the mill premises, during that time. Q. Are you not aware of the law which forbids the employment of children, between 10 and 15, more than 10 hours daily? Have you not children in your mill between 5 and 15; and what arrangement do you make for their schooling in the course of the year? A. I don't hire the children. Mr. Thomas Curtis,—worsted and yarn spinner, in the mill,—hires them. There are 12 children connected with the mill; about the number necessary for the running of the machinery during the year. Q. Do you light up and run the mill after dark, sometimes? A. Only in the carding room, about half an hour at the present time. We run the mill 11 hours a day—66 a week. On Saturday, we shut off at five o'clock. We run by Lowell time. Q. Can you rely upon what the parents say of the ages of their children? A. I think so. Q. So far as you can judge, are the parents in favor of their children's attendance at school; or, do they prefer that they should work in the mill? A. It is said that parents here coöperate with Teachers better than in almost any other place. Q. When a child applies for employment, do you require any certificate in regard to his age? A. Mr. Curtis, who hires them, has been very particular about that; and Mr. Hood, who has that business in charge, came over to the mill, last year, to see whether the children had had the required months of schooling.

Q. Have you boarding-houses in the village, for the accommodation of your operatives? A. Only private ones. We employ families mostly, and prefer always to hire married men, on account of the houses we want to fill. Q. Of what nationality are they, mainly? A. German, Scotch, Irish and English. There are no Yankees. Probably the English predominate. Q. What is the condition of the rooms in your mill? A. Clean, and the work is clean, though there is considerable grease in the wool. Very little dust comes from the wool. In the picker-room, it is thrown out by what is called a "Sargent picker."

Q. What conveniences have you, outside, for the private wants of the operatives? A. Two privies, outside, in very good condition. Q. Have they seats? A. Where the men go, there are none. Q. Is there a door to each of those privies? A. I have not noticed, particularly. The one for the men was fixed up, a few years ago. The pool, in front of the entrance to the mill, is the place into which we carry the waste. It is 12 feet over. One man buys all the waste and takes it out in November, and again in May, before planting time; or, perhaps, three times a year. I have never perceived it to be offensive, though I am about there every day. It is a dry waste. It is wet by the suds, and the water runs from it into a brook, where there is a passage-way to let it out.

Testimony of Benjamin Crowthers.

I commenced work as a factory-operative, in 1815, when about eight years of age. I worked 13 hours a day, and very often worked over-time, leaving off on Saturday, at six o'clock, P. M. We worked a quarter of an hour longer at noon, each day, and that time was taken off, on Saturday. Q. How much time did you have for meals? A. Three-quarters of an hour for dinner; none for breakfast; we took that before we went to work;—and we ate supper after we got home. We went into mill, at six o'clock A.M. and the work was begun then. I had to go about a mile and a half; to be out of bed at half-past four, and be on the way at a quarter past five, in Summer and Winter. Q. At what time did you leave off work, at night? A. At seven P. M., and it would generally take me about an hour to get home. I took it easy when going home. Q. In what place did you then work? A. In Yorkshire, Skirk-Court, now called Copley. Q. How long did you work there? A. About five or six years. I cannot say exactly,—it is so long since. Q. Where did you then go? A. To Salter Abbey, and worked there nine years. Q. What was your experience of factory-life in England? A. It is a long time ago to

be remembered particularly. But, as I told you, we were obliged to leave home at a quarter past five A. M. When we went into the factory, the manager always came out upon the steps, and, standing with his back against the landing, would *drive* us in, if we were five minutes late; and we used to go up to the door crying to get in, as easy as we could. Q. Was there any whipping in the mill? A. Yes, Sir, a plenty of it. The Overseers of the mill, every one of them, *carried a strap, say, perhaps, fourteen inches long, with a turned handle and a kind of a notch cut into it, and the strap was fitted into it and screwed in. They carried this over their shoulders, all day long, and, if they saw anything that was not right, they would strike us with the strap. That was easier than speaking to us;* and, instead of asking “why did you do so and so?” they would hit us with the strap. Q. Did you have any advantage of schooling? A. No, Sir; *none at all.* Q. How long did you continue to work under this system? A. I should say, altogether, about eighteen or twenty years. I got out, as soon as I could, into a different occupation. Q. When you left, what were the hours of labor? A. Thirteen. Q. Had the hours been reduced at all, before you left? A. No, Sir. Q. When did the custom of carrying this strap cease in England? A. Not until after I left. Q. What other occupation did you go into? A. Into hand-loom weaving, in what are called “domestic merinos.” Q. Where was this, in a house or in a factory? A. In a house. All that work was done in houses, at that time. Q. Did you own a house then? A. No, Sir, I worked in my father’s house. There were four of us,—three children and myself. My father had four looms in the house, and he and all the children worked at them. Q. Where did you get warp and filling? A. The manufacturers furnished it, just on the same principle that the shoemakers find stock, and we worked it for so much a cut. Q. Who found the looms? A. My father found his own looms. Q. Did he buy or hire them? A. He bought them. Q. What was the cost of them? A. About four pounds each (\$20). Q. How many hours, a day, did you work then? A. I could not say. There was no regulation about it. We took our meals, left the work and returned to it, when we got ready. We had so much for a cut; just what we earned. Q. Was your father able to save much by that operation? A. He saved some, but not much. Having quite a number of children at work, and some in the factory, we saved a little. He was feeble and unable to work much himself. Q. How long did you work at that occupation? A. I should think ten or eleven years. Q. Did you get married, during that time? A. No,

Sir. When I left hand-weaving I came to this country. Q. How old were you, when you came here? A. I think about forty. Q. Had you been able to save anything, before you came to this country? A. No, Sir. I never thought of saving anything. It was hard work to save enough to come here. Q. What did you engage in when you first came to this country? A. Hand-loom weaving, in New York City, on cotton goods. Q. Was not hand-loom weaving done in factories? A. No, Sir, in houses; four looms in a shop,—or six, and so on. That was the year when President Polk was elected. Q. How long did you remain there at hand weaving? A. It might have been four years. Q. Where did you then go? A. To Danvers, in 1848, and worked at carpet-loom weaving for two years, and, afterwards, at shoemaking. Q. Have you had any experience in the large factories in this country? A. No, Sir; none at all. Q. Had you any experience under the ten-hour law, in the old country? A. No, Sir. I have had no experience, but have corresponded with individuals there who pay particular attention to it, and know how it operates. Q. What do they say about it? A. They say it works very beneficially, in connection with improvements in machinery which have taken place; in Manchester especially, where they now have public parks and places for the people to go. With that and the ten-hour system, the people have become changed for the better in their habits. They tell me there is nothing, comparatively speaking, of the former habit of going to public houses for recreation. Q. Has the use of the strap been abolished? A. I don't certainly know, but I think it had been before I left England. Nor do I know that it ever existed there, but in two factories.* In cities, I suppose it never was used. But in out-of-the-way places, where factories were started, the managers did just as they pleased with their help. Q. How many years did you work at shoe-making? A. I believe about 14 years. I now go around canvassing for papers, etc., and have done so for the past twelve months. Q. Can you make as much at this occupation, as at work in a carpet mill? A. Yes, Sir. My health was failing, and in consequence of the revolution that is taking place through the introduction of machinery in shoemaking, my present occupation is better for me. I could not do anything in this new turn of the business. An old man could not work with the gangs, under this new system. So I was compelled to do something else.

* It was very general.

Testimony of Samuel Moores.

I was born in 1814, and went to work in 1823, at nine years of age. We worked 72 hours a week. I have never known any to work longer. Children worked the same time as adults. I often heard that, if boys and girls did not behave well and mind their work, they *got licked*. I never saw any licking, and was never licked. I worked in the same establishment nine (9) years, and have worked in a factory ever since. About two years after I went to work, we had three hours a week taken off, making the time of work 69 hours. That was the custom all over England in 1825. There was an incident in relation to this, from which you may gather considerable. The way in which we came to get those three hours taken off, was this. Other factories worked twelve and a half hours a day, for five days, and came out early on Saturday night, for the two and a half hours. We had these two and a half hours taken off on Saturday, but our employer wanted us to work up the time on the other five days, just as the other mills did. Finally, it was settled, that we should go in at five o'clock, on Saturday morning, and come out at five o'clock, Saturday night. The women rose before five o'clock, Saturday morning, but, instead of going to the mill, they went to the house of the junior partner, and rapped at the door. He came to the window, and they asked for his wife. She soon appeared, and they told her that they only wanted to let her know *they were of her own sex, and had to leave their warm beds at five o'clock, in the Winter time, and go to work in the dark ; and that was the last time they started at five o'clock*. The time was taken off; and, after that, we worked sixty-nine (69) hours a week. The law, establishing sixty-nine hours, was not enacted, I think, till 1837. So, you see, we were ten or twelve years ahead of the times. But our employer was an exception.

I understood from the summons, that I was to give some comparative view of the lives of American and English operatives. In 1823, I had four shillings (\$0.97) a week, one penny being kept back for a sick insurance fund. We had our wages paid, and, besides, medical attendance and such like, out of that fund, if any were needed. Two years afterwards my wages were raised to six shillings and sixpence (\$1.57), with four cents kept back for the sick fund. I believe, I had ten shillings (\$2.42) next, and six cents kept back. Then I went on job-work as a spinner. I was now sixteen years old. All this occurred within nine years. As spinner, my earnings would average twenty-five shillings (\$6.05) a week. We had half an hour for breakfast. We started, during six months of the year, at half-past five o'clock, and quit at seven; having half an hour for breakfast, and an hour for dinner. I forget

the length of the afternoon lunch. It was fifteen or twenty minutes, and taken in the mill. The machinery was not stopped. They always called it working, at lunch time. Six months in the year, we started at six and worked till half-past seven, with half an hour for breakfast, an hour for dinner, and lunch the same as before. I would call your attention however to one difference. There was more *freedom from restraint*. We might sing or talk. As a proof that we were not overworked, I would state this fact. On one occasion, in the course of half a day, I committed to memory the twenty-fourth chapter of Matthew, besides minding my work. I think it was about 1827. To the best of my recollection, I left factory work in 1832, and went to work in a wholesale hosiery and haberdashery warehouse. I came to this country, in 1839, and had to work seventy-eight hours, a week, with much less freedom from restraint. (The time of work in England was sixty-nine hours, when I left there.) *My earnings have not supplied my wants any better here than they did at home, though nominally higher.* I think that is as well put as I know how to put it.

There is one point, which ought to come in, because it is a change. Years ago, spinners preferred to work by the job, because they imagined that they escaped tyrannical driving. But, within the last ten years, piece-work does not save us from being driven. We are driven all we can possibly bear; and have to strain every nerve to give satisfaction, notwithstanding we are paid by the job. Some employers refuse to let you out when really sick, unless they happen to have spare hands. They will not let the machinery stand, but will discharge you, if you leave work. I remember another point. *The Burleys, for whom I worked, if an accident occurred, always provided a situation for the injured person, when he recovered; and this sick fund, or they, took care of him while sick.*

I have read with surprise the remarks of a number of American gentlemen, (whose veracity I cannot question, while I must question their judgment), who have stated that the operatives did not like to board in boarding-houses, because of the restraint there as to hours. They must be in by ten o'clock, at night. I think they object to board in boarding-houses, *on account of the lack of home feeling there*. It is not the home we sing of. There is no social fireside in a boarding-house. In short, I believe the first expression covers the ground. It is not *home*; and they leave the corporation boarding-houses to take poorer conveniences, if they can get the *home feeling* even in a smaller family, where they are acquainted with the housekeeper and the whole family. This makes it home-like. These gentlemen question the motives of

factory people, when it is an innate feeling, within ourselves, that makes us *long for a home*. The stairs and the chamber may be carpeted; there may be warm and cold water, and the greatest conveniences; *but we long for our own fireside* and our own home, though it have no furniture, but only the old woman, on one side of the fire-place, and me joking on the other, and three or four children, or some neighbors listening. But the boarding-house system is not always as it is described by those gentlemen. I have boarded where silence was required; where I didn't dare utter my thoughts to my right or left hand neighbor; for, *if I did, I should be discharged from work, on complaint of the boarding-house keeper*. I hope this is not the general practice; but I have experienced it. I have travelled a good deal, and worked in different places, but I never found tenement-houses so bad as those in Danvers. I have worked in Chicopee Falls, in Cabotville, in Springfield, in Lowell, in Saxonville, in Templeton, in Clinton, in Lawrence, and in Dedham. *Danvers has the worst mill and worst houses.*

On our journey to Richmond, Mass., we met Wm. Hickey, an Irishman, by the roadside. Upon asking him the way to Richmond Iron-Works, he took his pipe from his mouth, and, after directing us in a clear and comprehensive manner, he entered into conversation with us, and stated, as follows:—

“Have a wife and eleven children, the oldest a boy of 17, at present working upon a neighboring farm; the next, a girl of 16, working in a family near by; the youngest, is two years old. I own a farm of 56 acres; and made the last payment for it about a month ago; have also bought a sewing-machine, for my wife, and paid for it in instalments. I first worked in this country at Staten Island, New York, at farm-labor. I left there, after having saved about eighty (80) dollars, and came to Barkersville, in Pittsfield. Here, I worked on the farm of Mr. Packer,—my wife keeping boarders, doing all the work, and taking care of the children as well as she could, under the circumstances. *Hud 22 boarders, most of the time.* We continued to do this for six or seven years. Then, I came to Richmond and bought 30 acres of land and a house, for thirteen hundred dollars, paying one-half down. Bought in July; was obliged to keep some of my money to supply my family; and so did not pay all at once, although I had saved enough to do it. My family has been free from sickness, with the exception of one child, that had the canker-rash. None of my children have worked in the mill, except the oldest girl, who worked one week, at Bar-

kersville; on visiting her, I found her looking so poorly that I took her away though she was badly affected by it. I do not like the factory system, and *will never let a child of mine work in a factory, if I can help it.* My house is not very good and needs repairs; but it is a shelter. I love the country and will always defend it. I drink some whiskey and always keep it in my house, but rarely drink to excess."

We praised him for his industry and frugality, gave him a brief temperance lecture, and went on.

CHINESE LABOR.

In our Second Report we gave what information, we could obtain upon the history of the introduction of Asiatic labor into Massachusetts, its influence upon other labor and its method of operation. The information, however, was more that of historical detail, than anything else, since the recentness of its introduction had not permitted any development, either of the success or the failure of the new laborers, or of the expediency or in expediency of further introduction. We at that time decided that it would be advisable to wait, and to renew our visit and inquiries after the lapse of a year. Accordingly, in the month of October, 1871, we returned to North Adams to make further inquiries. The particulars of this visit are given below. We found the Chinese, as we found them at our visit in 1870, both living and working in the same building, the factory of Mr. Sampson. Their sleeping quarters are a large hall adjoining, fitted up with sleeping bunks, one over the other, on the sides and in the centre. These are furnished each with a mattress and bedding, the whole resembling the barrack arrangements of soldiers. The area of ground about the building is large and ample for exercise or amusement, the locality healthy, and the rooms within favorably situated for ventilation and heating. How far their sanitary condition was affected by the occupancy of one hall as their general living and sleeping room, we are not informed. Their eating room is a hall between their sleeping quarters and the main factory and general shop. This room is fitted up with small tables and with seats, each table accommodating six or eight persons. These several messes constitute one grand mess for the whole number of about 75, under the charge of one of their number, who acts as commissary, making the purchases

and settling the bills, and keeping all the necessary accounts. The men are held for a certain number of years, at the end of which, they become their own masters, and may or may not renew their contract, as they please. After payment of their bills, whatever balance is due each individual, he disposes of as he sees fit. It is said that they have become somewhat assimilated to our habits and fashion of dress, and an interest is taken in them by people in the town, in the way of ordinary and religious instruction, an interest that was never taken in any other foreign laborers. Were they single individuals, and not a group, their assimilation would be more rapid, and national habits more rapidly ignored ; but collectively, they will the longer retain the habits and the feelings which bind them to their own country, and which may eventually carry them back. The whole experiment is an important one, and its denouement will be waited for with much interest. We proceed to give details of our second visit.

North Adams.

Called on Mr. Sampson, at his shoe factory, the interview and conversation being as follows:—

Gen'l. OLIVER. We have called, Mr. Sampson, to ask for information as to the result of the experiment you have inaugurated, in the introduction of a new class of laborers. It has been in operation now something over a year, and by this time you can have determined some of the issues attending it. We called, a year ago, to obtain information at the commencement of the experiment as its success would be of great consequence to the people of the State, leading probably to its introduction elsewhere, and its non-success would cause it to terminate here. Will you give us such information?

Mr. SAMPSON. Before I say anything I want some witnesses. Last year you had the advantage of me, and I don't want to say anything without witnesses. [Mr. Sampson then called in Mr. Chase and two young men from the shop, whose names were not announced.]

Mr. SAMPSON. (Addressing Gen'l. OLIVER.) Before we go any further I have a bone to pick with you,—right here. You have done me a great injury by going outside and getting affidavits (which I can prove are false in every particular, and publishing them in this book, holding up a copy of the Report of 1871), from persons who are prejudiced against this experiment, one of

whom in particular, I tried to lift from the gutter, but who would not be lifted.

Gen'l. OLIVER. Let us understand each other on this point. Am I to understand you as saying that there were published in that book, (last year's Report of the Bureau), statements known to me to be false?

Mr. SAMPSON. You caused this book to be published?

Gen'l. OLIVER. No, the Legislature of the State caused it to be published.

Mr. SAMPSON. You gathered the statistics?

Gen'l. OLIVER. Yes, and the testimony was reported by an expert phonographer, Mr. Slade, now present.

Mr. SAMPSON. No, it was reported by Mr. McNeill; that gentleman, Mr. Slade, was not here.

Mr. MCNEILL. No, I did not report the interview. Mr. Slade, the phonographer, made the report, taking your words down as you spoke them. On that occasion I took no notes.

Mr. SAMPSON. Mr. Slade was not here at all. He was not here.

Gen'l. OLIVER. You are mistaken. Mr. Slade was here, took down what you said, and afterwards wrote out his notes. I can refer you to him.

Mr. SLADE. I was here and I made the report.

Mr. SAMPSON. Mr. Chase, was this gentleman, Mr. Slade, here last year?

Mr. CHASE. Oh, yes, sir, he was here. He took notes at that table. He was here in the morning. I remember that he came on the morning train, and was here taking notes until half-past twelve o'clock.

Gen'l. OLIVER. We reported these statements from Mr. Slade's notes, as we did other statements obtained from other parties in the State, in relation to other departments of labor. The testimony is wholly in the language of the parties testifying, with the exception, perhaps, of the correction of a grammatical error, or some mistake of that kind; otherwise it was just as the witnesses gave it.

Mr. SAMPSON. I told you, in the presence of Mr. Chase, that that was an informal conversation, like a familiar talk, and I did not expect it to be reported in detail; but you have taken down every little item and published it in this book. If I had known you were going to do that, I should not have given you so much. Instead of filling three pages it would not have been more than enough to fill one, and I should have taken pains to make it a little more aristocratic.

Gen'l. OLIVER. We are officers of the State, bound by our oath

of office to gather up all the facts we can collect on the question of labor, and those facts we have given in the precise, verbal form of the witnesses called upon.

Mr. SAMPSON. After you got my statement, you went outside and got testimony that I can prove to be false, from persons that I had had in my shop and could not get along with at all, and were prejudiced.

Mr. McNEIL (to Gen. OLIVER). Would it not be well to tell Mr. S. where we obtained the names of the parties to summon?

General OLIVER. We obtained the names of the parties summoned, from one of the town authorities.

Mr. SAMPSON. Who was the town authority?

General OLIVER. I do not feel authorized at present to give names. I am not here on trial. I am here for another purpose,—the obtaining of additional information on the question of Chinese labor,—a question of vital interest to the Commonwealth.

Mr. SAMPSON. I shall proceed no further until this matter is settled.

General OLIVER. What matter?

Mr. SAMPSON. The matter of the statements published in this book. You have damaged me, and put me back six months in matters that I intended to bring before the people of the Commonwealth exactly as they are, to show the people what they wanted, and what would benefit the Commonwealth. You know there are in this town members of the town authorities who are irresponsible persons; and I would like to know the name of the party from whom you obtained the names of the persons you summoned.

General OLIVER. I am a stranger here, and have no such knowledge. I do not feel authorized to give you any names. We came here as total strangers, and after calling upon you, we consulted with the town's people in order to know who would be suitable persons to give testimony on both sides of the question, of the influence of this new population within the town. One of the town authorities furnished the names, and we summoned the witnesses and took their testimony phonographically,—they themselves and their position in the town being entirely unknown to us,—and this evidence was printed as evidence in the matter of the investigations made by us. If you take any issue in regard to the veracity of the witnesses, it must be taken with them and not with me.

Mr. SAMPSON. No, I must settle this matter with you. I am not going to put myself on a level with those men; if you want to, you may.

General OLIVER. Well, Mr. Sampson, I think it is not worth

while to discuss this line of the subject any further, but will return to the point, whether you are willing to give us any information as to what has been the result of your experiment with this new class of labor.

MR. SAMPSON. I decline to give you any information whatever.

We then left, returned to the Wilson House, wrote out the conversation, and made out summonses for Mr. Sampson, Mr. Chase and Charley Sing. Placed them in the hands of Mr. McKay, a State Constable, who, thinking he could not serve civil processes, introduced us to Mr. Roberts, a deputy sheriff. Mr. McKay then suggested that perhaps he could succeed in helping us obtain what was wanted, without the trouble of summoning the parties to Boston. The next morning Mr. McKay called at the hotel, and stated that he had seen Mr. Chase, that Mr. Chase had seen Mr. Sampson, and that Mr. Chase desired that we should go to the office again and talk the matter over. After some conversation, the inquiry was made whether the request came from Mr. Chase alone, and Mr. McKay replied that it came from both Mr. Sampson and Mr. Chase. Went to Mr. Sampson's office; after stating that the call was made at a suggestion received through Mr. McKay, General Oliver said that if Mr. Sampson would fill out the blanks that he had received from the Bureau, and answer the additional questions as to the nature and scope of the contract with the Chinamen, that would be sufficient. The idea was then suggested that as Mr. Sampson had stated, at the previous interview, that he felt aggrieved at the report of last year, and by the publication of statements to which he had had no opportunity to reply, and which came from individuals hostile to him; that he might make such comments or answers thereto as he desired, which would be reduced to writing and considered by the Bureau. It was finally agreed, that, instead of making an oral statement at the time, he might send in a written statement in connection with the blank, such statement to be made and the blank returned within three or four weeks.

Some weeks after our return, we received a blank containing answers to some of the questions. As it did not contain the desired information, we forwarded Mr. Sampson the following letter:—

BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR, }
STATE HOUSE, BOSTON, February 5, 1872. }

C. T. SAMPSON, North Adams:

DEAR SIR:—In making the statistics of our next Report, now nearly in manuscript, we find no replies to questions Nos. 6 and 13, in Blank No. 5, which came duly to hand; and we also find that we have not received Tabular Blank No. 5, which were both sent to your address. At our last interview, we understood that, in waiving the idea of a summons, you consented to the filling out and remitting of both these Blanks; and further, that you would also inform us, or decline, (in writing), to inform us, upon the details of the contract upon which your present corps of Chinese workmen are employed.

We therefore send copies of the same two Blanks, with a request that you will remit us the needed replies; and also inform the Department as to what is the nature and what are the details of the contract under which your present workmen are engaged.

Of course, it is optional with you to make this reply. What we understood, at our interview, was, that you would either consent to our inquiry, or decline it. Neither of these having reached us, we renew the request.

Very respectfully, your obedient servants,

HENRY K. OLIVER, *Chief.*

GEORGE E. McNEILL, *Deputy.*

A few days after the following reply was received explaining the accompanying Blank:—

GENTLEMEN:—I enclose herewith blank 209, filled out as you request, with one or two exceptions. The reasons for not fully complying with your request, I give below.

I suppose "rate of speed" applies to factories other than shoe-manufactories and have left it blank.

Aside from the Chinese, I do not know that there are any in my employ who cannot read or write English, or who have not had the amount of schooling required by law. The few children I employ stay only a short time each, when their places are filled by others. The 125 days lost time is the total number of days lost for each month. The amount is mostly covered, however, by *girls who work by the piece.*

Were I to employ wholly by the day, this number would be greatly reduced. The total number of days lost for three months by all the men would be less than 50 days.

During the past five years, I have increased my business over 200 per cent. and consequently have a larger number of hands. This,

together with the change in my bottoming room [the Chinese are employed in this room], makes the number who were with me five years ago, comparatively small.

A majority of my employes come under the head of "young persons" as only a few of the Chinamen are over 21 years of age.

As regards my "bottoming room" wages paid, etc., I do not think best to give you the information asked for. The 74 Chinamen have made an agreement to work with me for three years. Owing to the expense of learning so large a number of men, some such agreement must be made for the mutual protection of both parties. So far as I know, I have not interfered with any law of my country or State. The men are satisfied with their work and wages, and I am satisfied with them. They receive their wages monthly and use them as they see fit.

Now unless there is some law to compel me to do so, I shall not make known the agreement between myself and the Chinamen in my employ.

Very respectfully, yours,

C. T. SAMPSON.

[OFFICE No. 209.]

Labor is plenty here with no special increase or decrease of wages for the past twelve months. On account of sickness or other causes, some have lost time, and others, to the number of 3 to 8, have worked a little extra time to cover the time lost. Have not used any power in extra time, and women and children have not been required to work such extra time.

We never change our rate of speed. Up to last year a majority of our help worked by the piece, and worked such hours as they chose. We have not caused the help to lose time for 3 years past, except in case of accident, repairs, or removing our machinery to another building.

The contract system of sub-letting is not practised in our business.

We employ 60 to 75 females. Nearly all work by the piece. 40 run machines driven by steam power. Almost all are native Americans. General health is good. When working by the piece they earn from \$1.40 to \$2.75 per day for 10 hours work. When by the day from 75c. to \$1.50. For 4 weeks in July, 50 girls in the stitching room, at work by the piece, earned \$1,675. Many have money in the Savings Bank. Some months' earnings have amounted to more than \$1,675 for same number of hands employed.

Employ only half a dozen children who work, on an average, only six weeks to two months at a time.

No accidents have occurred during the past twelve months. Have had no experience under a longer working day than at present, and no strikes for the past 12 months. Have no boarding-houses attached to our establishment. We pay our employés in cash.

All except the Stitchers are paid on Monday for the week preceding. Stitchers are paid every four weeks. We take only *one day* to make up the rolls and pay off.

Each of our foremen hold property. Several workmen have money at interest, or property, but I don't know anything about amounts.

No association exists among my employés, alone, and I do not know that any belong to organizations, known as "labor societies," etc.

During the past year, four of my employés have become employers. This is the largest number in any one year. All these were foremen.

Remarks by Mr. Sampson, accompanying Blank.

In your report for last year, there was published as "sworn testimony" the statements of several persons. In these statements, the principal object seems to have been, to underrate my standing as a man of honesty and integrity, in business transactions. Especially concerning transactions with my employés. Now as this testimony is in *many respects untrue*, and as it, in each case, came from men who are *prejudiced* against Chinese immigration, and against myself, men who have openly opposed me since I began employing the Chinese in my manufactory, I consider it as very unfair and one-sided. I can give you testimony, besides my own, which will prove to the contrary all statements, showing that I have broke a contract with my employés. Except it may be an instance when the contract was made between one person and myself alone, and no witnesses were present, in which case I cannot, of course, bring forward additional testimony.

The following are answers to questions contained in the Tabular Blank.

The total number of employés, 173. Native, 88, foreign, 85. Men, 23, women, 35, young persons, 109, children 6.

Average day wages of "upper cutters," \$2.50; stitchers, and those who work in stitching room, men, \$2.50, women and young persons, \$1.25, children, per week, \$2.50. Sole cutters, men, \$2.25, women, \$1.25, young persons, \$1.50, children, \$2.25. Finishing,

women and young persons, 87. Number of months in active operation, 12. Total lost time of all employés per month, 125 days.

Hours of labor per week, 59—on Saturday, 9; one hour for dinner. Total amount of wages paid for past year, from date,—Jan. 1, 1872, \$64,890.52. Average number employed for time, 173. The percentage of employés present with me a year ago, 87—five years ago—very few.

TRUCK SYSTEM.

This expression applies to the method of payment of workmen by orders instead of cash from their employers. These orders are given on stores which are either owned, with their merchandise, by the employers, or by some person with whom the employers have family or business connections, and who are, therefore, interested in the maintenance and success of them. Stripped of any plausible defence, it is a method by which the wages of the workmen are made a source of profit to employers, and are speedily returned to them to be used again, and perhaps again, either in the business of the manufactory, or of the store, or of both. In this way, employers reap a double profit, effecting a saving in their interest account, and, by getting their employés in debt at these stores, can bind them in a sort of local slavery, which will retain them in their employ, from positive pecuniary inability to remove from the premises. It is, in fact, an ingenious device, having for its defence the specious argument that it provides an arrangement convenient to the workman and his family, by having close at hand all those necessities of life which he must buy somewhere, and could thus buy with less sacrifice of time and convenience than in any other way. He might also just as well buy at such store as anywhere else, for buy he must, and here what he needs is within easy reach. This argument had special force when, as in England, and in some localities here, manufacturers depending for motive power upon water-falls alone, were compelled to erect their mills in spots far away from any densely-peopled neighborhood. Removing thither with workmen, first those employed in building and equipping, and then those employed in running their machinery, a "store" was a prime necessity, and, as owners of the premises and of the requisite capital, they would seem to be the parties by whom such a necessity must be supplied.

And it would further seem to be an act of benevolent utility to supply it. But though in some cases a necessity and a convenience, the system contained in itself a method of abuse and a power of tyranny, reducing the workman nearly back to the vilenage of the middle ages, and putting him under the bondage of debt.

It should be annihilated by legislation, and not be suffered to exist in Massachusetts in any form. The compactness of our population renders it unnecessary, and the advent and progress of the great civilizer—steam—renders it unnecessary to hunt up water power in wildernesses. But we proceed to our details on the subject.

The system is still prevalent in this State, specially, in the Western Counties. The effect of this method of payment is well described by an employer of six hundred workmen. We quote from the "Saturday Evening Union," of New Haven.

"Monthly payments are usually made on or about the fifteenth of each month, and then paying up to the first of the month. By this method the employer has in his possession, and uses in his business, the whole monthly wages of his employés, an average of a whole month. He keeps the fifteen days wages all the time. This amounts to a forced loan of all the wages earned, for the use and benefit of the employer; but is a great damage and loss to the employé, because by this method he is forced to adopt one of the following ways of obtaining the necessaries of life, presuming him to be a poor man.

"*First*—He must run up an account at a store if he can get trusted.

"*Second*—He must get orders from his employer on a store.

"*Third*—He must take store pay from the employer's store.

"For a poor man who buys habitually on a credit, there is but little to hope for but poverty. His credit is necessarily poor, because *he* is poor. The merchant knows that, however honest his customer may be, misfortunes may overtake him, and he charges a high price for inferior goods.

"The next course is to get from his employers, from time to time, partial payments in orders on some store, which plan looks well enough on the face of it. The credit of the employer may be none of the best, and high prices are charged on that account. But the usual fraud on the employé under this plan, is that the merchant arranges with the employer to settle once a quarter, taking a three

or four months' note, and allowing a commission of five or ten per cent. on all orders. This is a common plan of robbery in some localities. Of course the employé gets his goods at a sufficiently high price to cover the bank discount on the employer's note to the merchant and the commission allowed by the merchant to the employer.

"The other plan is that followed in many manufacturing villages, where the village store is owned by the manufacturing company, and the store is expected to take a large share of the earnings of the employés at full country store credit prices.

"Under all these plans of payment, the employé is the loser, and it would appear that the employer should be the gainer. But I think the employer, who by his long deferred payments compels his employés to resort to these methods, stands in his own light, and is also a loser. He certainly cannot keep the most intelligent and industrious workmen in his service, without paying high wages, and those he does keep cannot feel entirely satisfied, and will hardly do their best for him.

"With weekly cash payments the employé is independent in his purchases, and he or his wife can buy where cash will buy best. He receives his money as often as he needs it, does not feel wronged, and is contented.

"But the employer who stickles for monthly or quarterly payments, will say that it is impossible to make up workmen's accounts oftener than once a month, and that it requires fifteen days from the end of the month.

"That is not true. It is a great task to make up the accounts monthly. Errors in the time or piece work may have crept in which must be investigated. Weeks perhaps have elapsed since the alleged error was made or entry omitted, and it is impossible to remember the facts of the case. There is wrangling between the timekeeper and workmen, and bad blood is raised for want of memory, while with weekly payments all concerned remember from last settlement.

In monthly payments the whole of the fifteen days is absorbed by the bookkeeper on the pay roll, to the neglect of other duties, while for the fifteen days after pay day he has not enough to do.

"Under the weekly system, in large establishments, paying up to within three days of weekly pay day, the work of the office is more even—a little being done every day on the pay roll, and no rush.

"Under the monthly system the banks sometimes have all they can do to obtain sufficient small bills, unless they gather them for

the whole month previous, and the manufacturer throws a whole month's payments into one day.

"Under the weekly system the banks can accommodate more easily, and the manufacturer generally finds it easier to raise four weekly sums, than one monthly sum four times as large. Under the weekly pay system the whole business of a manufacturing village progresses more evenly and smoothly, and on the whole more profitably than under the monthly pay system."

In some places visited by us the pay roll is not made up until the 22d of the month. In others no cash is paid, the employé trading in stores kept by the employer. Many pretexts are made to avoid making cash payments. The following testimony describes the effect of the truck system, not only upon the employé, but upon the whole settlement.

Testimony of Dr. Wm. M. Kimball, of Blackstone.

Q. What is the system of payment? A. They pay every month at both establishments. Q. Do they pay cash? A. Yes. Q. Do the operatives get their cash and go out and buy their goods where they please? A. Yes, they take their money at the counting-room. Q. How long after the roll is made up? A. The 15th of every month. Q. Do I understand you to say they pay to each operative cash for his full time, irrespective of any store debt? A. Except that, for their own security, the store keepers have a system of keeping back one or two weeks' wages of operatives, to offset the liability of their sudden leaving. Q. Do the corporations own any store? A. No, the stores are carried on separately from the mills. Q. Do the mills take orders from the stores? A. Some years ago, there was a system of that kind. I think it is done away now, and that the storekeepers have to take their own risks. Q. Is there a Mr. ——— keeping a store there? A. Yes. He keeps the store just above here. He is entirely at his own risk. At the Arcade store, I think they do discount. Q. What do you mean by discount? A. They take in bills against the help, and so much of their wages is credited to them on the books in the counting-room. I think that is the method they pursue. They credit to the help a portion of their wages and pay it to the storekeeper. That storekeeper has, I presume, power of attorney from hundreds of the inhabitants of this place, and the business is managed in this way; if I keep a store and a man comes in, wanting goods, he gives me a power of attorney to collect his wages and I collect for him; and if he owes me \$15, and I collect \$20, I

give him \$5 and keep \$15. Q. In your practice, as a physician, are you called to visit the families of these operatives? A. Yes, many of them. Q. Do many of those whom you visit, give this power of attorney to storekeepers? A. Yes, a good many of them. I think there are, probably, 300 such powers of attorney given out in this place in that way. There may be 500. Certainly, 300 is within bounds. Q. What is the effect of this practice? A. It has a very bad effect. It throws off the responsibility of a man, and he will not pay his bills, and you have to depend upon getting pay as you can, if you do business upon a credit system. I do mine for cash only. You can't do it as well any other way. Q. If an operative should come to you with a broken arm, you heal his arm and ask for your money. But suppose he has no money, what would you do then? A. I make arrangements beforehand. I say "You must pay me, or make provision to pay me." Q. Do the operatives have no power, then, over their wages? A. No, not this class of them. Q. As a rule, do the operatives have a balance coming to them at the end of the month, over and above their indebtedness at the store? A. I should say that the majority of them do not. Q. Have you known cases where there was a balance at the store against the operatives, at the end of the month? A. There would be a balance against them if they had no money due to them. The accounts might just balance. Q. Have you known cases, where there has been a balance against and hanging over them, from month to month? A. Yes; many such cases. It is a very common thing. Q. What do they do, if they want to leave town and find themselves in debt at the store? A. They get up in the night and go away, suddenly, in debt. The store company is all the time complaining of such losses. It is a bad system every way, and has a bad effect on all sides. Q. Is the method you spoke of common about here? A. Not so common as in other towns. Q. Suppose an operative wanted to buy furniture, how would he manage to do it? A. He would buy it at the same store. It is a general country store, furnishing everything wanted. Q. If they want medical attendance, must they make arrangements to pay in advance? A. Yes; or give suitable responsibility for it, when the Doctor gets through, or else depend on charity. Q. How do other Doctors in town do, in regard to this matter? A. I don't know that any of them have pursued the same course that I have; not exactly, at least. I think they are all pretty cautious on this score. My course has been very decided on it, for the past eight or ten years. Q. What led you to adopt it? A. There was no safety in any other way. Q. Was there any

with the old American population? *A.* The pay was then good enough. We did business on credit.

Testimony of Mr. J. Taylor, of Blackstone, Storekeeper.

Q. The question we want to ask relates to the method of obtaining and of getting your pay for articles of trade. Suppose we are operatives, and come here strangers, and go to work in a mill; what is the method by which you would trust us? *A.* I take powers of attorney; sometimes, I take but very few. I generally talk with a man plainly. I ask the man what he is going to do, and in a roundabout way, without making him angry, find out how large his family is and what pay he is going to get, and see if he is going to get pay enough to support a family. Then, we sometimes trust a man without a power of attorney, and sometimes we don't. I take about \$300 a month, on powers of attorney; used to take \$1,500 or \$1,600. The buyer signs a document by which I am authorized to collect his pay. I take his dues and pay him the balance. I have reduced that to \$300 a month, by getting a different class of trades-people, not limited to factory-operatives. I have a good many others. I have the trade of most of the overseers,—cash payers once a month. The \$200 or \$300 that I take now, represent 7 or 8 families averaging \$30 a month, embracing groceries, clothing, and all varieties of goods. I keep dry goods, groceries, and crockery. I have some customers that draw \$50 or \$60 a month, even.

The overseers draw the least of any class we have. A good many of the foreigners have accounts at two stores. They have an idea that they can trade cheaper by trading in two places. I would not trust a man that had a power of attorney in another store. If a man comes and stands up fair and square, and refuses to give a power of attorney, I generally try him once. *A great many of this class of people live on potatoes and don't buy much.* Some of them earn \$36 to \$40 a month.

Q. With these parties that give you powers of attorney, is it often the case that at the end of the month they are still indebted to you over and above their wages? *A.* Not those that I hold. In many cases it is so. In the store above here, you will find them in debt all the time; and when they want to get away, they move off in the night.

A man may be poor and honest. I would make allowance for them, but if a man is mean, I try to get my pay. We can't trustee the children's wages. A great many families we trust on what the children earn; we don't trust them on what the father earns or

the mother, and if they are not disposed to pay we can't get it, but have to take our chance. A man comes in here who has three children at work in the mill; perhaps they can earn more than he can, or he may work two or three months and then depend on the children. The Irish take their children's wages until they get married; they take them as long as they can keep them at home.

Some of them save money. I have met many at the bank in Woonsocket, R. I. And there are a great many who *are in debt in this town who deposit in that bank*. Some of them give powers of attorney. For instance, a man comes in and gives a power of attorney for his own wages, but takes the pay of the children and deposits it, or he can assign the whole of the wages. I have found people at the bank, who were in debt at the store. There are people who owed me \$30.00 and wanted to pay me \$20.00 and deposit the balance.

I think the dealers are to blame for this thing. I think the operatives would be better off, and the dealers, too, if they would trade squarely, and if a man comes to trade, have him understand he must pay it all,—not in part. As the business is conducted now, we really bid for their custom every month. If we all said to a man, "At the end of thirty days, we shall send you a bill"; and if he did not pay, not trust him any longer, we should be better off; and if they had to pay cash, they would not spend so much money for liquor.

Q. What are the habits of the working people in the town, in regard to temperance and morals? A. Better now than for a great while; I could not say much for the morals of this town five or six years back; it is rather a hard town, with a good deal of intemperance. We have a good deal of noise, but I don't know as more than other places, where they are mixed up as they are here, though this is a pretty hard town. I should go away rather than bring up children here,—for their sakes. But I live in Waterford, in the N. E. corner of the town; that is a very quiet place; though here it is different; you would not want to go through it at night, and it is not proper or safe for a lady to walk the streets. A part of Waterford is in Rhode Island. It is Woonsocket when you get on the other side. Q. Are the operatives acquiring property here, owning their houses? A. I should say not. There are instances where they do, but the cases are *very rare*. You will find the majority of them in debt to the stores. I honestly think that rum and the storekeepers are at the bottom of it. I think if they were made to pay their debts, they would not spend so much money for rum. I don't think their wages are any too high. I don't think they are

paid enough. I have one man that owes me \$200 more than his pay. He is a good man, don't drink, has a wife, and I have actually given it to him. *I don't know how he is going to get along.* I told him the other day, I could not do any more for him. He is a tip-top fellow, and he don't get angry. If he would come in and get angry with me, I could do something with him, but I am a little too tender. I know he is a good man and would pay me if he could, but he can't do it. *I don't know when he had any new clothes.* Q. Do you know whether this practice is carried on in Rhode Island? A. Not so much in that State as here. This store on the hill deals altogether in powers of attorney. We have to do it, more or less, to protect ourselves. A man comes in, and we don't know him. He might come in and buy \$50 worth of goods, and go up street to another store and give a power of attorney, and I could not get my pay; or if he got miffed at anything, he might give such power of attorney and they would take it. This has been done. I have lost \$500 in this way.

Testimony of James Gleason, of Southbridge.

Q. We want to ask you about the method in which the operatives here obtain their groceries, provisions, &c. It was stated in testimony, last year, that a certain compulsory system was adopted, and we are investigating that statement. What is your business?

A. I am connected with a store and also manufacture paper; that is my special business now. I and my sons together have been selling all kinds of groceries and provisions, for 14 years. Q.

What is your method of dealing with the factory operatives?

A. We give them 30 days' credit and then they pay cash. Sometimes we have taken orders. Where we have any doubts about a man who comes in, we take an order on the company for a certain amount. They give an order for about what operatives earn, not quite. But a small proportion of them—not more than 10 per cent. give orders. There used to be more. The manufacturing Companies have not been so willing of late to take orders. That has been one reason why we have not taken them so much. The Companies are opposed to the system. It makes them some trouble. We have now a different class of customers from what we had five years ago. I have been in business so long that I have sifted them down and understand them. We don't intend to do business with men that we don't think will pay. I have known instances where an operative at work in the mill, has found at the end of the month that his wages did not come up to the amount of his bills. I have had them come and complain to me that they

did not earn enough to pay their bills; that would be the reason for not paying. I have known such instances when we had the order system. A man may have been earning \$40 a month, and the next month have been sick, he or his family; or he may not have worked so many days, and he would run behind. *Have known men to work 6 or 9 months, and find themselves continually in debt at the store. Have had such instances even as long as a year.* Some customers are always behind. *Q.* For instance, suppose we went to work at the Globe Mill, 5 years ago. The storekeeper don't know us, and we want to obtain some groceries and come to your store and say, we are going to work in the mill, and want to obtain some groceries. What shall we do? *A.* I should say you must get an order from the company. Have not known cases of that kind to continue a year. If we found a man was getting behindhand or didn't get pay enough, we should stop selling him. If he had a reasonable excuse for the first two or three months, we should let it go along; after that should discontinue trading unless, as I said, he had a reasonable excuse. *Q.* Have you ever known cases where employers from out of town have come to you, and paid the bills of operatives, so they might take them away and employ them elsewhere? *A.* No; nor anything approaching to it. I do not think I ever took a dollar in that way. Have had operatives that I was dealing with by orders, leave without paying their bills. They left the mills without giving notice, and they would not pay what they had earned. The Mills pay on the 15th for what was due for the last month.* If a man goes off without notice, they consider that he forfeits his wages; and if I hold an order from the man for his wages for that month, they refuse to pay it, on the ground that he left without notice. I occupy a store that belongs to the company, but I do not get any special favors from them in consequence of that. Of course, they do their trading with me themselves, but they give orders to any one else as much as they would to me. I have never been able to get trustee processes answered.

Q. Do you know J. W. Perry? *A.* I know him very well, but never read his statement. I was keeping store when Mr. Perry was a sort of Superintendent. He was never Agent, but took the Agent's place when he was gone. I never had any dealings with him in regard to the wages of the men. *Q.* His statement was that operatives were influenced to go to your store and trade upon a system of orders, and that they would find themselves at the end of the year with orders larger than their wages would pay; and

* That is, they pay 15 days after the pay is due.

that they could not leave unless some person came forward and paid their bills. *A.* I don't know such an instance. In fact, I don't think the Company ever influenced any one to go to my store. I am not aware of it, and we have had no preference that I know of.

Testimony of George Ballard, of Southbridge.

Have been Agent six years, and was Agent part of the time during the stay of Mr. Perry. He left soon after I came. Perhaps, he was here a year or less. I don't recollect particularly.

Q. Was your method of payment the same as it is now? *A.* It has been the same these twenty years. *Q.* Were there more orders than now? *A.* I am not aware that there is any difference.

Q. Have you ever accepted a power of attorney given by any of the operatives to any of the storekeepers to collect their wages?

A. No, unless you term these orders powers of attorney. *Q.* In

these orders, do they give parties power to collect *all* the wages?

A. Only part of them. We have had orders to collect their pay, but that is very unusual. I don't know that I could give a percent-

age, it is so unusual. As a general rule, we pay our operatives' cash into their own hands. Anything else is the exception, and has

been so during the past twenty years. I read over the testimony of Mr. Perry, but can't say that I gave very close attention to it.

Have not known any cases where operatives have worked for a year, and, during the whole time, have had all their wages taken by orders. There might have been such cases, but I know of none.

Have never known of employers from out of town coming here for help and paying their debts, and taking them away. Should have been likely to know it, if there were such an instance. It would be a *very unusual* thing. I think I should have noticed it. Have no

agreement with Mr. Gleason or Mr. Harris, except letting them the building. There are no injunctions given to the operatives, directly

or indirectly, to trade there. They are tenants at will. Nothing is ever said to the employés about where they shall trade. I don't know that the thing was ever thought of.

Testimony of George A. Hanson, of Southbridge.

Am a Merchant in this village. The bulk of our trade is from the mills. Our system of dealing with the mill operatives is cash and credit, similar to that of others. Occasionally, I take an order.

But as a rule, I do not. We trade \$5,000 a month and probably do not take \$50 in a month, on the average, in orders on the corporations. We sell dry goods and clothing. *Q.* Do the operatives

give you power to collect the whole of your pay out of their wages?

A. We have never had a case of that kind, where we drew the

wages from the mill. The only orders we have are those where a party comes in and we take an order for two or three months, or for one month, for the bill they contract. That is all. The store we occupy is owned by the corporation, and if there are any favors, we are supposed to receive them; but all the advantage we have is, if we carry an order in, and an outside party carries an order in, we should get the preference; they do not like to bother with them; they do not favor it, and they will not acknowledge a trustee. Have been engaged in business four years. Was here when Mr. Perry was Superintendent. Lived in the village, and did business in the centre of the town, and traded with the factory operatives there. Do not know of any store in these two villages, where the operatives are obliged to trade, and where orders are general. The mills don't want to bother with orders, and don't like to accept them. The Agent has told me so repeatedly, and it was the same when Mr. Perry was here. No inducements are offered to the operatives to trade with me—none at all. When we have orders and the operatives leave without notice, according to the rules of the Corporation, we don't get anything. We can't draw any pay at all. I have read the testimony of Mr. Perry, and, as far as my knowledge goes, it is not correct. I was intimately acquainted with the party who occupied the store at that time. I know the arrangement that was made, and I don't think his testimony was correct. I don't know a single case where it would apply. Was conversant with the practice of orders during that time. It was the same then that it is now; we had, occasionally, an order when we lived in this village, the same as we have now. The operatives generally pay their bills very well. We have not lost \$500 in the whole time we have been here. We do a business of \$60,000 a year. The last time we took account of stock, in August, we threw out some bad debts; probably half of those were outside of the corporation. From the operatives, I don't think we have lost more than \$300, in bad debts, since we have been in business. Q. Which class do you find to be the best purchasers? A. There is not much difference; I think the French buy more, but they don't pay quite as promptly as the Irish; but they have paid us well.

Testimony of Samuel C. Hartwell, M. D.

Q. Do you know anything about the present and past methods of payment? A. There is no compulsion, nor coercion nor constraint; there may be an unseen influence exercised, but I don't think there is. I think anything that pretends to show that the employés are expected to trade at any particular store, is not well

founded. It is true that one or two stores are rented by the Hamilton Company, at a very high rent, on, perhaps, the understanding, and perhaps not, that certain favors will be granted in the way of collecting bills ; but the fact that people trade indiscriminately here, there, and everywhere, shows that there is not much favoritism anywhere. I know Mr. Perry very well indeed, and I read his testimony. I think it was not wholly unbiassed. He went away from here with a strong prejudice against the Hamilton Company, and I don't think he did them justice. A good many years ago, I guess it could have been corroborated. I don't believe there is anything here now that would substantiate it. There was no such condition of things then to my own personal knowledge. I know enough to know that that was not a fair statement of the facts. I have no particular love for the Hamilton Company, nor any bias against them ; but there is a certain degree of influence that they exert in an indirect way, wherein they do not appear, that is not for the best. To a certain extent, it constrains their help ; but not in the way of trade. I have had men say to me, who are personal friends, and who perhaps, under some circumstances, would send for me, "I don't dare to employ you. I go to the church where you do, and it is the church that they do not support, and that is as far as I dare go." I know that comes from the fear that they will object, though, perhaps, nothing would be said. A few years ago, they undertook to divide the town, and my father and myself were very strongly opposed to it, exercising considerable influence against it ; and they have ever since had a hostility against us.

Letter from Bristol County.

The following letter was placed in our hands too late for an investigation of the statement :—

I have been discharged, this winter, for taking part in the Labor-Reform movement, last fall, though I had lost one of my legs in the late war. But I do not want to remain where my fellow-beings are so shamefully swindled out of their hard earnings. It is repugnant to my nature. I have been in this State nineteen years, and had no idea, that, in this enlightened Commonwealth, the law would allow men to be swindled as they are here. I could send you the names of twenty men, having families, who never drew a cent of their pay while I have been here. They only get what they eat, at the store ; and if they say anything they are discharged. I saw a man, last pay day, who cried, because he could not get one

cent of his pay, but all he could get was what groceries he could use, or be discharged; the Superintendent's son kept the store.

REMARKS.

We visited Southbridge for the purpose of examining the method of payment in that place. As will be seen, the testimony is somewhat conflicting, but the weight of the testimony is in favor of the statement of the agent of the Globe Mill, that orders are the exception, not the rule. Yet Mr. Gleason, a merchant, testifies, "I have known men to work six or nine months and find themselves in debt at the store; have had such instances, even as long as a year." This statement agrees with that of Mr. Perry, given in the last Report; but such cases, Mr. Gleason says, are the exception, as he would not continue trading with them.

The testimony of Dr. Hartwell upon the unseen influences of manufacturing corporations is corroborated by statements made to us in many of the factory towns of the State.

ACCIDENTS CAUSED BY UNPROTECTED MACHINERY, AND EFFECTS OF FACTORY LABOR.

We hope the above heading will draw attention to the information below appended. With the increase of the manufacturing interest in the State, with its consequent increase of machinery, there cannot fail to be an increase of accidents involving loss of life or of limb, and protection therefrom can only be secured by the adoption of the English system of fencing in all dangerous parts of the several machines used. This is compulsory under Statute of Parliament, and the Factory Inspectors appointed by the Government are charged with the duty of visiting all the mills within their respective districts to enforce compliance with the law,—as well as to enforce compliance with the educational laws of the Kingdom. English machinery in our own mills may be at once distinguished from American by this protective feature, a feature generally not existing in any American machinery that has fallen under our notice. In some mills that we have visited we have been compelled to "gather in the skirts of our garments," lest they should be seized by some rapidly running belt, coming all unprotected, right through a floor from the shafting of a room beneath, and our marvel is that so few accidents have happened with so good

chance for a great many. We are more and more convinced that Massachusetts before long must adopt the English method of inspection of mills, if she means to protect the bodies of her operative classes from damage by fracture, and their minds from damage by ignorance.

As we study and observe the advance in Massachusetts towards becoming substantially a manufacturing community, and observe how largely legislation favors that advance, and how little it considers the condition of those by whose actual handwork that advance is to become positively productive, we fear that all the worst concomitants of factory life in Europe will attend our own system. Knowing how bad these were and yet are, though with alleviation at last in England, we are constrained to lift up a voice of warning and entreaty, and to supplicate efficient legislation to ward them off.

We now give a chapter of accidents. The number could be multiplied, as there is not a week without some such record of the need of legislative interference. Some occurring out of Massachusetts are given.

1. Mr. B. W. Moran, a workman in Richardson's Scythe factory, in Fitchburg, while adjusting a belt, had his hand and arm wound round the pulley, bruising and tearing the flesh from the wrist to the elbow, and crushing both bones of the arm.

2. As a young man, named Francis Staples, was shifting the belt of a machine, in the shoe manufactory of Messrs. P. A. Chase & Co., on Spring Street, Lynn, his clothing was caught by the shaft, over which he was thrown several times, fracturing his right thigh, and receiving a bad flesh wound upon the left leg.

3. Mrs. Woodward, employed in Messrs. S. Sister & Son's mill, at East Webster, was caught by the hair of her head in the shafting, making 240 revolutions per minute, *and had her entire scalp and left ear torn from her head.* There is possible hope of her recovery.

4. A lad of 15, named Place, was killed at Blackstone, in one of the mills, by being caught in the main belt and thrown against the ceiling.

5. A lad, about 15 years of age, was caught in the machinery of the Pacific Mills dyeing-room, Lawrence, and so badly crushed that he lived but a few minutes.

6. Mr. Lawton Smith, an esteemed citizen of Canton, while engaged with a boy in repairing a belt in the Copper Works, in the South Village, was caught by one arm and drawn over a pulley and through an aperture scarcely nine inches wide. Before the boy

could summon assistance, Mr. Smith had been carried several times over with the belt, his arm was torn from its socket and his head so badly crushed that his death ensued at noon. He was nearly seventy years old, and left a family.

7. John Caldwell, was caught in a belt in a mill at Blackstone, and badly injured, but will probably recover.

8. Miss Addie Whitney, engaged in J. E. Spencer & Co.'s Spectacle factory, in New Haven, was caught by her dress in a revolving pulley. Before she was rescued, her clothes were torn off and both legs badly lacerated.

9. Mr. Horace Lewis was instantly killed at Housatonic, Great Barrington, by being carried around a shaft in a paper mill.

10. A serious accident occurred at the Springfield Cork Company's works. As Miss Ella Warner, a lady 20 years old, daughter of Amaziah S. Warner, was standing upon a box, reaching up, her hair caught and wound up on a shaft, she hanging there *until the scalp gave way and she fell to the floor with the whole surface of her head bare.* Her recovery is possible, but doubtful.

11. As George Paine, engineer in Wm. J. Doherty's Shoe manufactory, Willard Street, Lynn, was oiling some shafting, his shirt sleeve became entangled in the leathern belt, and before the machinery could be stopped, he was whirled round half a dozen times, and his clothing torn from his body. He was picked up in an insensible condition, when it was found that one of his legs and his right arm were broken, and his left ear torn completely off. He was conveyed to his residence in Allen Street, West Lynn. It is the opinion of the attending physicians, that he cannot recover.

12. We learn from the "Fall River News," that a lad named John W. Smith, aged about 12 years, met a shocking death in the Robeson Mill. He was lying on the floor, looking down the elevator way, when the elevator descending, his head was caught between that and the floor, and crushed so badly that the brains exuded, and he expired almost instantly. The poor boy had been at work only a few days in the mill, but during that time had been repeatedly warned to keep away from the elevator.

13. Mr. Erastus A. Newton, Superintendent of the Boston Flax Mills, at East Braintree, was caught by a shaft and completely wound round it, the shaft making some three hundred revolutions before the engines could be stopped. He had the presence of mind to tell the workmen near to stop the speed, immediately upon being caught. When rescued, his left arm was nearly torn from his body, so that amputation was necessary, three ribs were broken and his body bruised and cut in a shocking manner. His clothing was

nearly all torn from his body. Singular to state, however, he is doing well and hopes of his ultimate recovery are entertained.

14. As Mr. John Stevens, Engineer in A. Nute's Shoe factory, in Farmington, was polishing the machinery, he was caught in the shafting and instantly killed.

15. Mr. Patrick Hurley, for many years a resident of Newton Upper Falls, was severely injured, at Pettee's machine shop, by being caught while mending a belt, and drawn up to the ceiling over the main shaft. The engine was immediately stopped, but not until both his arms were broken and shockingly mangled by the revolving pulleys. His left arm has been amputated, but the surgeons have some hope that the right arm may be saved, although it is broken above and below the elbow.

16. A Miss Warner, of Massachusetts, while visiting a woollen mill, at Glen Cove, L. I., had her hair caught in the machinery, which threw her around the shafting several times, only being released *by her scalp being entirely taken off*. She will probably die.

17. Miss Mary Tyrrell, a young woman employed in the watch factory, at Elgin, Ill., was lately caught by the hair in a shaft, jerked from the floor, *and her scalp completely severed from her head*. Seven hours afterwards, two Doctors discussed the propriety of replacing the scalp, and, at last came to the conclusion that it was the "natural dressing," and now the poor girl is doing well.

18. A man named Leonard, at the Duck mill, in South Fitchburg, had his right hand and arm terribly crushed, while working at the picker, into which his hand was drawn. His hand was crushed almost to a jelly, the second and third fingers being torn off. His arm was drawn in above the wrist, the flesh and bones being terribly torn and crushed.

19. A young Englishman, named Hopper, while at work in a machine shop in Whitinsville, was caught by a belt and dragged over a pulley. His right arm was torn completely off, and he experienced other severe injuries. The arm has since been amputated, and he may recover.

20. A sad accident occurred at the South Village Mill, in Webster. Thomas Cornaford, a workman in the dye-house, while working near a belt, was caught up and carried over the shafting three times. He was terribly mutilated and died in a few minutes. He was about forty-five years old, and leaves a wife and five children.

21. Martin Murray, employed in Pearson's rope-walk, Boston Highlands, had one of his hands caught, and, together with the forearm, so badly crushed in the machinery, that he was taken to the City Hospital, where the injured limb was amputated.

22. Fall River, March 16. This morning, about eight o'clock, a man named John Grace, while at work at a picker machine in the Quequechan mill, had his left hand caught and terribly mutilated. It was afterwards amputated.

23. George Hoyle, employed in the workshop of A. G. Coes, at New Worcester, was caught in the shafting, and carried around thirty or forty times. He was instantly killed, his neck having been broken and one foot torn off. He was 35 years old, and leaves a wife and child.

The Worcester "Evening Transcript" says an accident occurred at the Wrench Manufactory of A. G. Coes & Co., at Webster Square, which resulted in the almost instant death of George Hoyle, an employé in the machine-shop. While attempting to run off a belt, connected with a milling machine, from a shafting, which extends nearly the entire length of the shop, at a distance of some three or four feet from the floor, the man's head was caught and he was drawn over the shaft. An alarm was given and the machinery was stopped, but not until Hoyle had been carried round the shaft forty or fifty times, his body and limbs striking the floor at each revolution. Medical aid was promptly sent for, and arrived a few minutes after the accident, but, of course, nothing could be done. The injured man lived but six or eight minutes after being extricated from the machinery, and probably lost all consciousness at the first blow against the floor.

24. A workman, in the mill of the Washburn & Moen Manufacturing Company, was caught in a belt, and, but for the presence of mind of a fellow-workman, who promptly cut the belt, would have been seriously if not fatally injured, says the "Spy."

25. About a quarter past eight o'clock, Monday night, Hartley Driver, a lad about 13 years old, son of John Driver, of this city (Lawrence), and employed at the Arlington Mills, while assisting to mend a belt, was caught in some way by his clothing, and thrown round the shaft several times, until his clothing gave way and he fell. On being taken up, it was seen that he had received severe if not fatal injuries. His arm was broken above and below the elbow, and the flesh under the arm badly torn. His back was severely injured and both feet almost crushed to jelly. A surgeon dressed the injuries, and everything was done to mitigate the sufferings of the boy, but he lies in a very dangerous condition. From subsequent accounts we learn that the poor boy survived his injuries but a day or two.

Testimony of an Operative whose Arm was broken at Waterford.

Q. Where were you at work when your arm was injured? *A.* At Waterford. An operative had gone to a funeral, and I was ordered to do his work. It was not my business to do it; but, of course, I went and did it, and I got wounded. Have worked in a mill, altogether, nine years; in the weaving shop, the card-room, the picker-room and the dye-house. Have mother, wife, and a child two years and one month old. I was hurt in the gig-room at Waterford, on the main shaft over the driving-wheels. They have these double gigs, and but few understand working them. So the Boss, to take some one that understood it, put me there. The man, that was running my own gig, got the belt fouled, and Mr. Murphy went up and tried to shake the belt off, but he shook it the wrong way. I stopped the machinery,—the main shaft was going all the time,—and I went up and took the belt off and showed him how to do it. While I was telling him, the belt was playing round the shaft, and there was a tack where it was spliced and that caught my hand. There was a little partition behind, and when I was caught I put my hand out and steadied myself, and it stripped me, and then I chucked myself off; and in chucking myself off, I broke my arm. The shaft made more than 20 revolutions during the time and it stripped me. I had on two strong woolen shirts; it tore them down, and caught hold of my pants and ripped them down to the hems; they were strong and my feet came up to the shaft. The purchase of my feet broke the hems, and then I dropped. If I hadn't chucked myself off in that way, I would have gone down and been straightened out flat and broke my neck. I fell on the bedding of the large water-wheel; that is where I broke my arm and hurt my side. I had my senses all the time. They said I was dead, and stopped the water-wheel. When the Boss came in, I said I wanted something to cover my nakedness, and he got me some clothes and brought me to the doctor. I never felt the hurt so badly as when he set the upper bone. *Q.* Do the company pay your wages while you are sick? *A.* That is what I don't know. I have never asked anything. I have always been able to pay my own way. I never had any trouble before. *Q.* Have you ever known a workingman to get injured as you have been, in a mill? *A.* Yes, and get killed. *Q.* Are the wages of one so injured generally continued? *A.* In some cases they have been. The man I am with is from Belgium, and not likely to pay much. I don't expect to be paid anything. The setting of my arm I have got to pay for myself. I gave the doctor no order. He knows me and set my arm.

Testimony of Dr. Wm. M. Kimball of Blackstone.

Q. As a physician, have you often been called to attend cases of accident that occurred in the mills? *A.* Yes, I am called every week, regularly. So far as accidents in the mill are concerned, I was obliged to make (and I told the Blackstone Company so) an arrangement to take care of them. I could not do so unless they paid the bills; and the Blackstone Company pay me for taking care of the injuries that occur in their establishment, especially among the women and children. But I think there is a class of men there, that is expected to pay their own bills,—the overseers and a few of the leading mechanics. But whenever the women and children are hurt, I take care of them and carry my bill in, and it is paid. Whether they take it off of the wages of the help, I don't know. The cause of the accidents is being caught in the machinery; usually the fingers, hand, and arms; and, sometimes, severe accidents all over. I had one case, within a few days, where a man was caught in a belt, carried up over a shaft and broke his arm. Then there was one badly hurt in the Blackstone Mill, within four or five weeks. They have a good many injuries up there; sometimes three to five a week. Do not know whether the Company continue the wages of those parties when they are injured.

Testimony of Samuel C. Hartwell, M. D., of Southbridge.

I have been a resident of this town and practising physician here, thirty years. Accidents have occurred almost daily or weekly, during my whole medical practice. They are most frequently of the hand and fingers, and usually caused by getting entangled in the machinery, in the gearing and under the rolls,—from that part of the machinery which persons are handling. Accidents from belts, etc., are of frequent occurrence. No fatal accidents have occurred in the history of the town, in my own practice, that I can now recall. Accidents of the breaking of limbs are not very frequent, though occasional, by being caught in the belting, or by being caught and drawn up. *Q.* In case of accidents, who pays the physician? *A.* I should like to find that out. You are expected to collect the pay of the employed. From an employer, I never received a cent, since I have been in practice. Accidents frequently occur to children; very frequently to children under fifteen, from being caught in the gearing, or in the machinery, in some way or other, getting their hands into the cards and torn. I have once had to amputate an arm, in consequence of its being caught in a card. I remember, also, two or three accidents by which the arm was destroyed. *Q.* What is the difference between children employed in a mill, and

children not so employed, as to their physical development? *A.* I have observed this; that the physical development of children is arrested, and their physical health materially deteriorated by long continued working in the mill. They become pale, thin, bloodless, poor in flesh;—the girls especially,—inducing a tendency (of very frequent manifestation) to spinal distortion; so much so, that I have thought that spinning, in the case of young girls, between 10 and 15, had a decided tendency to produce spinal curvature. I have had cases of deformity caused by long continued work in the mill,—spinal curvatures, generally. I don't recollect any other cases now. Lateral curvature of the spine is the deformity of most common occurrence. I have not found any fever symptoms that were traceable to overwork or exhaustion; mild types of fever. The atmosphere of the mills is especially liable to develop pulmonary diseases in those predisposed to them.

Q. What effect has working by artificial light, upon the eyes?

A. I should not think more in manufacturing, than in other branches of labor, if any.

Q. What is your opinion of the employment of children by artificial light? *A.* I should always deprecate it.

Q. Have you ever found any difficulties caused by the inhalation of foreign particles, dust, &c.? *A.* Not any, except in a general way, as embraced in what I said in regard to the liability to the development of tubercular disease in those predisposed to it.

The diseases among operatives would not differ much from the usual diseases endemic to this locality. I have not made observations on the two classes, discriminately enough to make any distinction between them.

Q. What, in your opinion, is the effect of the length of time between the meals of the operatives,—breakfast at six, dinner at twelve? *A.* I have sometimes thought they suffered, formerly, but not now, from a too short period of time for their dinner.

They had sometimes to go a good ways for it, swallow it hastily, and hurry back. That was in relation to dinner and supper when they worked early and late.

Q. How much do they allow for dinner now? [Mr. PAGE. We commenced by giving them an hour, but at their special request it was fixed at half an hour, that they might gain time out on Saturdays.]

Dr. HARTWELL. That is a bad point; they do not give a long enough dinner-hour. I don't care where it comes from; that is against all rules of hygiene and common sense.

Q. Do you find any predisposition to contagious diseases? *A.* No, there is nothing in my observation to lead me to think so.

Q. Any predisposition to pelvic diseases? *A.* That is so general, I cannot draw any distinction. There is a general increase of predisposition to those diseases all

over the country, that is in my opinion due to seclusion and want of air and light and exercise. It is among the best classes worse than among the poorest. I should say, those classes that are able to work the most are freest from it. *Q.* How as to the prevalence of sexual diseases, in the mills? *A.* I should think, generally, immorality was on the increase. *Q.* Do you think there is any connection between continuous factory labor and premature old age? *A.* Yes, long continued habits of labor upon one thing make a man so old, by the time he is 40, that he cannot go out of the mill and go into anything else, to save his soul. He is a slave after that time. I can tell instance after instance of men prematurely old at 45, and chained down to machinery all their lives, because they cannot go out-doors to work. They are absolutely unfitted for obtaining a livelihood by any other business than that of working at what they have always cramped their energies to do, and confined their attention to, all their lives. *Q.* What is your opinion of the physical deterioration caused by the employment of female labor; what effect does that have upon the constitution of children? *A.* I don't know as I have anything to say on that point. *Q.* Are there any particular points that you have observed, in your experience as a physician, in regard to the employment of women and children in the mills 11 hours a day? *A.* I think the tendency of the employment of women in the mills is to deteriorate the social condition and whole welfare of the sex, in society. It unfits them for domestic life. But that is a matter of theory. I have no facts especially to prove it. I think it would be true of any labor that required so much concentration of attention. It would be true of agriculture. *Q.* Which, in parturition, would have the fewest pains, the agricultural woman or the operative? *A.* The operative, because the muscular fibre would be less firm. *Q.* Which would get over it the best? *A.* The agricultural woman. The operative would go through it easiest from laxity of muscular fibre, but the agricultural woman would get up and shoulder the baby the next day, and go to work, when the operative would lie abed. *Q.* What effect does the subdivision of labor have upon the brain? *A.* It has the same effect that it has for a man to narrow his thoughts to one single idea, and confine them there. *Q.* Suppose a young person should go to work in a mill, at about ten years of age, and work until 25, at the present system of labor; what effect would that have upon him and his children? *A.* Generally, it would tend to contract their capacity and limit it;—both physical and mental capacity. What do you suppose a boy, put at 12 years of age to making pin-heads, would be good for

afterwards? Subdivision is a grand thing for the employer, but a curse to the employed. A man goes into a shop and goes to making screws that hold two parts of some machine together, and never makes anything else but screws. The minute that business is dull, he has not learned the use of tools enough to adapt himself easily to some other business, where the use of the same tools would enable him to make something else. He can make screws, or grind glass, and that is all he can do. It is a grand thing for the employer, because he gets it done better, cheaper and quicker than where a man makes a dozen articles; but it is destructive to the laborer, and destructive to the employer in being destructive to the producing capacity of the laborer. Q. Whether you know anything about the continuation or non-continuation of the wages of operatives when they have met with accidents? A. I never knew their wages to be continued in a factory; I have on railroads. Q. Have you in any other establishments outside of factories? A. Yes, in some mechanical employments. I recollect, in the box factory, which furnishes me more accidents to the hand, with the exception of the severe accidents, than any other branch of business we have, that they have kept the wages along.

Testimony of an Operative.

A late accident in Lawrence led me to recall some of my former experience. In Lowell, we used to have drums about 30 inches in diameter, as well as I can estimate. They revolved very rapidly. I don't recollect the number of revolutions, but I know that I have frequently had to hold the belts while they were being laced. There would be nowhere to shift on either side, and when I held one, I had to have my hand up above the drum, to keep it from being caught. I must keep it up so that it wouldn't touch the shaft, and when I was a good, strong, able-bodied man,—as I was 20 or 25 years ago,—my arm has ached until it has trembled, and I have had to give warning to run, because I could not hold it; and I have seen the belt snatched and struck against the ceiling with the greatest force. That never occurred but once, and that was in season for me to give warning, and we ran off. When I read of a boy working until eight o'clock, and then holding a belt, if his condition was like mine, it is no wonder he was killed. We have to hold these belts, sometimes, in very dangerous positions in order to lace them, which could be remedied by only stopping a little more machinery. So far as I have had experience in this country the machinery and belts and shafting are not generally protected, and, therefore, many accidents occur in the mills to the fingers and

hands of the young persons and women, and to their bodies. I remember a great many instances. We have had two, I think, within six months, in our place, of the fingers getting caught in the gears. One case was under the Doctor's care several weeks. Shuttles sometimes fly out and make black eyes, and cut holes in the neck. Have not known of many instances of persons being caught by belts, thrown round the shafting, or injured by the shafting or belts; but I have seen the clothes rubbed off of a girl, and I grabbed another girl's dress and ran to her with it. That was in Lowell. Her clothes caught in the belt and were torn off. *Q.* Do you know anything about the sanitary condition of the different mills in the State, as regards ventilation and heat? *A.* Ventilation cannot be had in cotton or woolen card-rooms, in the winter season. In cotton or woolen weaving-rooms, spinning-rooms, or dressing-rooms, it cannot be had. The wool gets rough and lumpy, like peas. If I open the windows, top or bottom, it blows my "ends" down. The room cannot be ventilated by opening the windows.

I will tell you of the system in England, and it shows me that if there was the same anxiety to protect the health and comfort of the operatives, that this Burley family, in England, have always manifested, things would be decidedly better here. Mr. Burley built a large chimney at the end of the mill,—I should think it was 12 or 14 feet in diameter,—and carried it up to a considerable height above the mill. The fans out of the picking room were driven into it, and out of every card room was a register opening into it; and when the sun would shine in, you could see the dust streaming towards that register. There was a current going off there all the time, purifying the room from foul air and foreign matter. I have never seen anything of that sort in this country.

Systematic ventilation is provided in some of our first-class mills, though too generally neglected. Old mills have no system.

STRIKES.

The past year has been quite free from strikes. None of any magnitude have occurred. We have investigated three only, and these were of short duration. Two of them were made by women. One was at Lynn, against an obnoxious rule, and was successful; the other was at Stoneham, against a reduction of wages, in which the women yielded at the request of one of their leaders and returned to work. In the strike at Dan-

vers, few operatives were connected, but it was of longer duration.

Strike at the Danvers Carpet Factory. Testimony of an Operative.

Q. What were the particulars of the strike that took place during the past year? A. It took place on the last Thursday in May. The men in the shop came to the conclusion that they ought to have more pay; that five cents more, a yard, were paid in other places, for the same quality of goods. They had a meeting and appointed a committee to call on the Agent—Mr. Tapley. He told them that he could not advance their pay. Some talk was had on both sides; and, finally, Mr. Tapley said he would see the Board of Directors, but that he did not believe they would do anything. He, himself, had no faith at all, in their paying an advance. The hands gave him until the following Friday, to return an answer;—the first Friday in June. On the last Saturday in May,—two days after they had seen him, and before the day appointed for his answer,—he shut down the entire mill. His alleged reason for it, was “a scarcity of wool.” We supposed, and it was the general belief, that he intended to intimidate us. That was one reason, and another was that the following Thursday was the “taking-in-day;” and they gave him till Friday—the day after that. Thursday was the last day of their month; and, by shutting down the mill on the Saturday before, he cut off forty (40) pieces of carpet. (A piece is from one hundred to one hundred and ten yards.) He cut off these that would have been turned out in those four (4) days. Consequently, he benefited himself by not having to pay out money; and the strikers were crippled by not having so much to receive. This was the opinion of every one of the employés. His excuse was (the employés called it an *excuse*), “scarcity of wool.” Q. What do you mean by “taking-in-day”? A. Taking-in-day is the last day of their month—which is Thursday. We are paid off, the first Monday in every month after the first Saturday. The first Saturday used to be the pay day; but, being paid on Saturday, I have heard that the weavers used to get tipsy on Sunday; so that, by keeping back the pay until the first Monday, they were all at work, and not so liable to break off from work. Thursday before “pay-day” is the last day of their month, and it gives them two days to make up their books. Now all pieces, taken off the looms on or before taking-in-day, are paid for on the following month. After the carpets leave the loom, they go into the dressing-room, are sheared, napped, etc.,—going through the several processes—and are packed by the Overseer. The strike continued twelve weeks. At the end

of that time, Mr. Tapley told the Boss-weaver, that he would like to have a meeting. But I am ahead of my story. The mill was shut down during the week, in which the Agent was to let the people know whether he could advance wages or not. So the mill was not running. He never came to see the committee, as it was his first duty, to let them know whether he could advance pay or not. So that, the mill being shut down and the door locked, the operatives called it a "lock-out." He did not consider it such. He called it a "strike-out." It was not this, because it was his duty to see the committee; and, when he failed to do it, it was their duty to see him. It was a regular "lock-out." They never had an interview, afterwards, until the three months were up. Then, he saw the Boss-weaver, and said he would like to have a meeting of the whole shop,—not of any committee,—and converse with them, himself. I cannot give you the exact date of this, but it was at the end of the three months that they met. A committee waited upon him. Young Mr. Tapley's father—the real power behind the throne—appeared at the meeting. He said that he had no offer to make; nothing encouraging; that they could see just how it was as well as he could; but, if they wanted to work, he would do the best he could for them; and, as soon as times justified an advance, he would give it. They voted to go in, and that was the end of it;—a shameful end, I call it.

Testimony of G. A. Tapley, of Danvers.

Q. What do you know about the strike here? A. In the latter part of May, the operatives wanted more wages. We found that we could not pay more, for we were not making much at the time. Wool had begun to rise and rose very high. We told the people that we did not feel able to pay them more, and there was, in consequence, a strike. It was a pleasant one, however. There was no violence. I told the hands we should pay more if we could afford it. If they went out and the market should go up, we might have to employ them at an advance. They went in, after 13 weeks. Every one seemed to feel as though they wished they were not out. Q. What is the average earning, per day or week of a weaver, in your mill? A good fair weaver earns from \$2.00 to \$2.50 a day. In summer, they work more hours. In winter, they don't light up, and so earn less. They don't earn, on the average, more than \$1.00 per day, because they are old men and can't do much. We have one man who does not earn more than \$8.00 per month. He has been with us 25 years. Weaving is done mostly on hand-loom. We have no power-loom. The old men work in the

mill, and their families work in shoe-shops. We have 8 or 10 operatives who have been here ever since the mill started. They don't earn over 75 cents a day—not over that, on an average. We have 49 looms, and about 40 weavers. Seven of the weavers earn \$1.00; fifteen, \$1.50, and the rest about \$2.00 a day. Q. How much does a spinner earn? A. Spinning is done by the pound, according to the work. One spinner, Mr. Moores, didn't have so good a chance last year; the other earned about \$2.00. We have but two spinners. Q. What dividends have you made for 1871? A. Ten per cent.; partly from our earnings, and partly, from the rise of stock on hand. We had a pretty good rise in July. Q. What have you earned over and above your dividends? A. I can hardly tell. There was a little surplus. Q. Had the operatives any other employment, during the strike? A. I did what I could for them. I went to a man, who was building a road, and obtained employment for a number of them, on the road. It was a benefit to us—their going away—for wool went up very fast. We were making blankets, and it was a help to us. I can't say that none of the hands felt hurt; but I was pleasant to them all. I told them that, if the business improved, we should have to advance their pay. But the business seemed to grow worse from that time. We still have the same hands, as before. They are generally a temperate set of men. There was some intemperance among the weavers. The spinners are a nice set. One of them—Mr. Moores—is a very intelligent man. He don't lose a day, nor will he, in a year. The spinners have never struck. We have had no trouble except in the weaver's room. The mill was run just the same, during the strike. Q. Have your men any facilities around them for instruction or recreation? Is there an evening school? A. We have free lectures and a library, about one-half or two-thirds of a mile from the mill. Q. Do they avail themselves of them? A. They do, generally, very gladly. There is, also, a church upon the hill; a Methodist church,—which they all attend. It has been recently started, and a preacher hired.

Shoe-Stitchers' Strike, in Lynn.

The commencement of this strike, was at first, in but one or two of the principal Shoe-stitchers' shops. It was occasioned by the attempt of the Boss-stitchers to reduce the wages of those receiving the highest wages, one-seventh per cent., and increasing the lowest paid as much, to establish more uniform prices.

This matter was under debate, for some days, by both employers and employées; the latter protesting against any reduction of wages on any pretext whatever; and employers persisting in their claim. A meeting of the Boss-stitchers was called, at which they passed a resolution, that every girl, in their employ, should sign a certificate, in compliance therewith, certifying that they would give two weeks' notice, or pay five dollars, before leaving their present employ; without which, they should not be admitted into any other stitcher's shop, in Lynn. This resolution was distributed among the Shoe-stitchers in every shop. The girls, with equal promptness, called a meeting, which was attended by about nine hundred of them, when they unanimously voted, "that they would not comply with the resolution, nor submit to any rule or regulation binding them, that did not likewise affect their employers," and passed the following resolutions, viz.:—

"We, the Working-women, in convention assembled, do accept the following resolutions, as an earnest expression of our sentiments;

Whereas, we have long been sensible of the need of protecting our rights and privileges, as free-born women, and are determined to defend them and our interest as working-women, to the fullest extent of our ability: therefore, be it

"Resolved, That we, the working-women of Lynn, known as Upper Fitters and Finishers of Boots and Shoes, do enter a most solemn protest against any reduction of wages, on any pretext whatever; and that we will not submit to any rules binding upon us, that do not equally affect our employers.

"Resolved, That we feel grateful to the shoemakers of Lynn, for their interest and determination to stand by us in our time of need.

"Resolved, That we, the free women of Lynn, will submit to no rules or set of rules that tend to degrade and enslave us.

"Resolved, That we will accept no terms whatever, either with regard to a reduction of prices, notices to quit, or forfeiture of wages. That while we utterly ignore the spirit of selfishness and illiberality, which prompted the late action of our would-be oppressors, we will not hesitate to resist, in a proper manner, the unjust encroachments upon our rights.

"Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be given to each one of the Committee, to be, by them, presented to each girl in every shop, and her signature thereon obtained, that she will adhere to

the terms of the resolutions; and should any one of the employées of the shop be reduced in her wages, or ill treated, we will desist from our work until she has obtained her rights.

“*Resolved*, That a copy of the above be inserted in the Lynn papers, and a large surplus number be provided for distribution among the girls.”

These resolutions were distributed in every shop in Lynn, and published in two of the leading newspapers in the place. The resolution of the Boss-stitchers was then withdrawn and the girls were allowed to go on with their work, at their former prices, although there are some few cases where the work has been so divided and subdivided, that it has reduced the wages of those receiving the highest wages, and increased the wages of those receiving the lowest, seven per cent. This, however, is with those employed by contractors, or those who take work under contract from the different manufacturers, employing their own work-women.

Stoneham Strike.

This strike was occasioned by three hundred of the Daughters of “Crispin Lodge,” employed as machine operators in three of the Boot and Shoe manufactories of Stoneham, asking for seven cents more, per pair, upon a certain kind of work, which was granted for the present contract. When this was finished, and a new supply of work came in, it proved to be of the same kind, and they were notified that the work must be done at a reduction of seven cents, per pair. This the girls refused to accept, regarding it unjust, and in violation of one of the rules that had been passed at a previous meeting of the Lodge. When they were told that they might leave at once, to make room for those who would work for the proposed prices, they did all leave, and remained out of work two weeks, receiving their dues from the Order. Meantime, it became evident that others, at least some, could be readily obtained, and then the principal leader in the strike called a meeting and advised them to resume work. This was decided by vote, and one of the prominent leaders was detailed to notify the employers of the decision and to obtain permission to resume work in accordance with their terms. This was readily granted to all but the two leaders in the strike, who have not since been admitted into the shops, and

have been able to obtain work of only an inferior kind, which they were obliged to do at home. One of them has been unable since to obtain enough to defray her cost of living, and has been obliged to borrow money to pay her expenses. Recently she has left town for other employment. There are some few who have left the shop,—the Order, declaring that they would not be bound by an individual or organization that would compel them to do one way or another. All are now at work for the same prices against which they struck.

HOMES OF THE WORKING CLASSES.

Some improvement has taken place in those pestiferous tenement houses to which, in our first and second Reports, (1870 and 1871), we drew public attention. Yet there are far too many left of the same abominable sort, and we fear more are added to the number of bad ones, than bad ones are made better. And that is done in this way. Houses, that have been long inhabited by the well-to-do class of people, are vacated by them for others in more fashionable quarters, or because the encroachment of business comes too closely upon them, and then a less fortunate class of folk occupy for a while,—they, in their turn, to make room for another class on the descending scale, and downward till houses, once fashionable and in fashionable quarters, become the neglected, dreary tenement houses into which the families of the low-paid and poverty smitten and miserable poor crowd by dozens in a single room, and hundreds under a single roof. Of such houses, Federal and High Streets in Boston could have furnished notable samples, before business pulled down the worn-out and filthy barracks, and erected the magnificent structures for business that now adorn those thoroughfares. So, too, old houses and other buildings in less valuable localities, are fitted up and filled with tenants so crowded in, that daily quarrels, broils, fisticuffs, fights, become the common incidents of their neighborhood; and nothing but the special efforts of policemen, and hardly those, prevent daily murders. Here are the biding places of filth and grime; here are hovels rotting with damp and mould; here are puddles reeking with stenchy garbage; here are putrid cesspools and uncleansed drains, befouled with unspeakable nastiness; here cholera and fever find congenial abodes, where the pure breath of heaven never comes, and where they gather in their prey as fishers

gather fish into their nets, with deadly certainty and in countless numbers. Here merciless landlords, many of them ranking among the wealthiest, reap their richest harvests, yet are specially careful to reap with the sickles of others, and never to venture themselves into the perilous field. To preach to the wretched tenants of those pestiferous hovels that "if they will be virtuous they will be happy," is wasting one's breath, and a casting of pearls before those who have become swine "on compulsion." Make them happy first, by certainty of employment, by just wages, by an elevating education, and then you will have put them on the high-road to virtue. To them, that would be a better and more efficacious mission than any theology that could be preached.

All our large cities and towns are full of such places. Boston, Lowell, Salem, Fall River, Lawrence, Worcester, Springfield, every city where a disproportionate division of the proceeds of labor has made the few very rich and the many very poor. Spasmodic reforms occasionally interfere for good, but like the "crackling of thorns under a pot," which give no permanent heat, they produce no methodical, comprehensive or radical remedy.

The condition of the tenement houses in Boston was first exposed by this Bureau, from information obtained by actual visits made by us in December 1869, and in 1870; (see First Report 1870, pp. 164-185, and Second Report 1871, pp. 517-531). Public attention was awakened, and the public press, in some instances, took up the theme, and sent its reporters to test our disclosures. They found the truth even worse than our painting. The State Board of Health has joined in sounding the alarm, and the importance of homes for the poor, outside of the city, with easy and cheap access by rail, is occupying public thought and crystallizing into positive act by men of sympathy and energy. The great and blessed change in that once filthily notorious den, known as the "Crystal Palace," on Lincoln Street, the abode of nastiness, robbery, drunkenness, prostitution, and every moral and physical abomination, where riot, disorder, quarrels and police-jobs were the daily, nightly and hourly work, is a most gratifying sample of positive conversion; and we feel that our efforts in informing the public of the horrible condition of this and other human shambles, and the subse-

quent auxiliary efforts of the State Board of Health, have received a most gratifying reward. (See Second Report of that Board, 1872, pp. 10-12.) Think of a Christmas Tree on Christmas Eve, and neat children gathered about it, with gentle hearts and hands ministering to their pleasure, where within less than a year, the name of God was but a help to profanity, and Christ unknown but in an oath!

But, as we have said, Boston is not alone in this wrong, and were those places that are “without this sin” to be invoked to “cast the first stone,” there would be small throwing of missiles. The Commonwealth itself, whose strength could wield the most ponderous and effective rock, would be powerless, and compelled to be the “first to go out.” Let her see how she houses the people, who, with “their lives in their hands” toil day and night,—nay, “night without day”—where they work, in the greatest of her industrial achievements,—the tunnelling of the Hoosac Mountain. Let her look at the wretched shanties, wherein the hardy miners have their comfortless homes,—frozen in winter and baked in summer,—men, women, children, pigs and hens about the premises, in a sort of common life and continuous intercommunication. The desperate strife for cleanliness, by some of the women, is most praiseworthy, and shows what they would still further do, if proper homes were given them.

When we examined these places, in the fall of 1871, we blushed for our State, and hoped that no prying stranger would “interview” and report. Those built by the Messrs Shanly and leased to the laborers, though not model tenements, are far better than those owned by the State. “Why,” said a Roman Inspector of Cavalry to a soldier in the ranks, “why are you so robust and your horse so lean?” “Because,” said the trooper, “I take care of myself, and the state takes care of my horse.” History has many parallels,—and it would appear that less care is given to the homes of these laborers in the mountain, than the men give to the care of themselves, so far as their means will permit them to take such care. There can be no excuse for housing these people in the poor way in which they are housed.

These tenements are small frame buildings, covered with boards which are battened on the outside. None of them are

plastered. The shrinkage of the boards has opened the cracks between them and sprung the battens, so that the rain and snow and wind find easy access to the interior ;—it being impossible, according to the testimony of the inmates, to exclude moisture or to keep comfortably warm in winter. The main room of the houses is 12 feet square, with 7 feet post, and is used, generally, as a living room, and in some instances, in addition, as a sleeping room. Directly back of this large room, is a small, low shed, used as a wash-room, in most cases ; but not of sufficient height for a grown person to stand erect. At the rear and to the right of the main room, is a bed-room of the same height as the main room, measuring 5 feet by 6. A pair of ladder-steps lead into a room above covering the whole of the house, 8 feet in height under the ridgepole, and 18 inches high at the eaves. The roofs were shingled, but had evidently not been repaired for years. The shingles were, almost without exception, badly warped, curled and split, and were but little protection against the rain and snow. The upper rooms are substantially uninhabitable in winter, and the lower rooms are rendered endurable only by a continuous fire. There is one window in the living room. Some of these tenements were whitewashed and a few papered ; these improvements being made by the inmates themselves ; but, generally, the houses were in a dirty condition. A number of the workmen keep pigs and hens, and, in some of the houses, the pigs and the children of the inmates occupied what one of the workmen called “ the best room ”—that is, the living room,—indiscriminately. Some of the houses have cellars, about five feet in height, without windows ; while others have no cellars at all.

From conversation with the occupants of these houses, we learned that they were built and owned by the State. They are let for \$2.00 per month, which is paid, in the first instance, to the contractors, and by them to the State.

Testimony of Mr. Pond, State Paymaster of Tunnel Laborers, of North Adams.

The shanties, at the tunnel, belong to the State and are rented to the Shanlys. The rental amounts to about \$600 a month, for the shanties and all the buildings. There are about 25 double shanties and 8 single shanties, at the East end of the Tunnel. There are 7 double shanties and 8 single ones at the central shaft ; at the West end, 18 double shanties and 20 single shanties. That is what we

turned over to them. They have built a few since. They make no profit on the rental of the shanties. There is no agreement that they shall keep them in repair, but it is for their interest to do so. There ought to have been \$2,000 laid out on those shanties when the State turned them over, two years ago. I presume the Shanlys occasionally repair one, but there have been no general repairs made. I have nothing to do with the men who are employed there, any further than keeping the accounts. I know how many men are at work. We make up the estimate here. The Shanlys sublet some portions of the work. At this end, they have sublet the brick arch. The payment of the school teachers up there is made by the town, the same as with other schools. I never knew of any assessment being laid on the men for the school. I don't believe there has been any at all. I understand that the State has given the town some land at the central shaft, and that they are going to build a school-house there, for the benefit of the miners. I have been paymaster here, six years. There have been between 90 and 100 *fatal accidents since the tunnel was first started*. There are many accidents that are not fatal; men get their eyes put out and limbs broken; but *get over it*, and we don't hear of them. In some cases of accident, the State has made compensation;—but these cases occurred before the Shanly contract was made. If a man was badly hurt, his case was considered and they frequently gave him \$100 or \$300—\$500 is the most ever paid. You would have to ask them to ascertain what their practice is in such matters. At a great many of the shanties, they keep boarders. There are 670 men employed at this time, pretty much all of whom live on the works. They are at their own expense, while the machinery is out of order. There are large boarding-houses, at all parts of the work, where the better class of workmen board. The miners, rockmen, &c., who have no families, board at the shanties. They are filthy, dirty places. So far as my observation goes, they are all healthy. There is no more healthy class of men, that I know of, than the miners.

The only clause in the contract of the State with the Shanly Brothers relating to the employment of labor in the Hoosac Tunnel, is the following:—

“The contractors shall use their best efforts to keep intoxicating liquors from their employes, and to promote orderly conduct among them; and shall, when required by the engineer, discharge any men

who shall be careless, negligent, or incompetent, or guilty of conduct prejudicial to good order."

"An employé once discharged for misconduct, shall not again be employed upon the work, without the consent of the engineer or engineers."

Tenements in Danvers. Testimony of a Citizen.*

Q. Tell us about the tenements here in Danvers? A. I have gone through many of their houses. I have gone through, as canvasser, and I have paid more attention to their tenements than to my own business, in a great measure. *Take them as a whole, they are horrid; those belonging to the factory, especially. There are tenement houses there, that ought not to be occupied. Four families have complained to me, that if they go to bed, at night, and there comes a shower, they have to rise up and put dishes in different places to catch the water, and that they can't sleep in their beds;* and to prove it, I went and examined, and saw it was actually worse than they had said; one house, especially, where a person came to me, and I saw he didn't look right, and I said, "Are you going to work?" "No," he says, "I had no sleep last night." It had been raining and his mother had been baking and preparing things for the house, and, in the morning almost everything had swum off and gone away,—in all directions. Q. Did the water come into the basement? A. No, from the top, right through it. There has been an addition put to it, and I imagine it comes in where the addition widens it out. Another man, whose wife is sickly and in bad health, says his house is just so; it rains all through it. I got into a few words with Mr. Tapley, himself; and told him about these things; and asked him how he could think of screwing rent out of people living in such tenements, that were not fit for any persons to live in. I said to him, "You profess Christian principles; go to church, on Sunday; and yet you grind this money out of them, when they can't lie in bed without being swamped, and some of them are sick persons too." A day or two after, he went and shingled one-half of it. On the other side, the scaffolding is up yet. Another house, I was almost afraid to go into. I could see right through into the cellar; the plastering was entirely off of the ceiling, and they told me it leaked in just about the same way. There is another house, where there is a yard square without a shingle on it; and then another has an addition to it, and you can put your whole arm right in betwixt the two. It is more like a pig-pen than a decent house. Round the factory, it is as Mr.

* See visits of Bureau and Strikes.

Moore stated. *When people are in the water-closet, the people on the road can see them.* There is not a good tenement in the village.

Tenements in Salem.

Next, visited the old rubber works on Ward St., now used as a tenement-house, and owned by Samuel Calley, mayor of Salem; first-floor room 15 by 13 and 9 foot post; 2 rooms in a tenement; rent, \$4.00 per month. Pump, in yard, for soft water; spring water is pumped in the basement. The building is three stories in front and two stories in the back. Six privies, partly uncovered; no doors. Very dirty and foul; partly white-washed, last winter. Second floor, 3 rooms; rent, \$5.00 a month. Jerry Sullivan takes care of the building and collects all the rents, receiving his own rent free; has been there 11 years. There are 19 families in the house; 50 rooms, and 70 persons occupying them. The tenements consist of back kitchen, with two windows, and bed-room, leading from the kitchen, and front chamber, facing the street. The bed-room is lighted by the doors leading from the kitchen and the chamber. The front entry had been whitewashed just at the doors, but no further.

There are many other such tenements in Salem, and in other Towns in the State.

SCHOOLS FOR FACTORY CHILDREN.

Lawrence Evening School.

The girls, some 300 in number, occupy the rooms of the Oliver Grammar School, on Haverhill St. They were arranged in classes, each class with its separate teacher occupying a separate room. Some five rooms were occupied. The scholars had all been at work in the mill that day, having worked there eleven hours. The studies were the ordinary studies of common schools. On asking all of those under 15 to hold up their hands, we found that a large proportion of them were under that age, and, further, *that they had not had their legal schooling, and that they had worked 64½ hours a week.* Many of these children were between 10 and 13 years of age, and, in the various rooms visited, some 15 or 20 of them were found to be employed by the Pacific Mills Corporation, *that report to us that they employ no children under 15 years of age.*

A few children were found under ten years of age, working in both the Pacific and the Atlantic Corporations. The superintendent of the schools and some members of the school committee were present, as it was the inauguration of the evening schools for the season.

Next visited the boys' school in the basement of the City Hall building, a low, badly-ventilated room, filled with 198 persons from 10 to 25 years of age,—the majority of them under 18. Some 10 or 12 older persons occupied a separate room. The boys come into this room precisely at half-past seven, (when the doors are all locked), and remain locked into this basement one hour and a half, and are then discharged. The teachers were mostly women,—being regular teachers in the day schools, and receiving an extra compensation of \$1.00 an evening, for their attendance upon the evening schools. The air was very impure and the scholars looked tired and weary, but gave fair attention to their lessons.

New Bedford School for Factory Children.

Visited the Superintendent of the Public Schools. He said that the Agent of the Wamsutta Mills, had discharged all the children under 15 years of age, and that he—the Agent—says that he will discharge any overseer, who employs such children without a certificate from him (the superintendent), that they have been at school; and, also, that the agent has corresponded with agents in other parts of the State, and that they had also caused the law to be enforced in this particular.* At one time, 78 of the children, in this mill, were discharged, 8 at another and 8 at another time. A mill school was started, and two of the best teachers, competent to the task, were put in charge of it, assisted, occasionally, by another teacher. The truant officer, also, looked after the children.

Before the discharge was made, the agent set at work, thoroughly, and obtained the name, age, and residence of the children; as well as the names of their parents. The Superintendent was well pleased with the school; but thinks a Half-Time school would be preferable.

Visited the Mill School. A class of large scholars, about 15 years old, was reciting in arithmetic. We called up a little

* We have not found, in our visits, that this law had been generally enforced.

girl, Mary A. Carroll, a very small child. She was 10 years old, that day. Had worked in the mill 5 months; she was not much larger than an ordinary child of 7 years of age. We called up all who had worked in the mill before they were 10 years old, and 38 *responded*; all *very small*. The French children were called up by a French boy, whose name is Napoleon; 3 of these children had never been at school.

We asked the scholars to vote on the question of Half-Time schools; if they would like to work *half the day*, and go to school *half the day*; and all hands went up with a will. We then asked, if they liked to work in the mill, and they hesitated, and looked at each other; some hands going up and then others following.

The children look brighter and cleaner than those of Fall River; the room a little better, but not what it should be. The teachers expressed themselves well pleased with the result of the 5 weeks' schooling. Two little French children, a boy and girl, were called up, who could not speak a word of English, 5 weeks ago. They pronounced their words well; the teacher asking object questions and the children answering. We have thus to record another school gained for Factory Children and hope there will be many more ere long. We are persuaded that the creation of Half-Time Schools all over Massachusetts will be a long step in a wise direction.—And it may be added that it is now deemed competent for any School Committee to establish them.

Salem Half-Time School.

On our visit to this school, 27 children were in attendance; 16 of them were French-Canadians; 7 Irish; and the nationality of the remainder was unknown. The regular attendance at this school was 42 in the forenoon and 50 in the afternoon; the small number present at this session was duly explained. They all had clean faces, and nicely combed hair. One little fellow, 9 years and 2 months old, fell asleep at his desk.

The following facts, in relation to several of these children, were obtained.

John Kane, 9 years old, and worked, 5 weeks, in the mill. His mother works there.

Arthur Cheney, 9 years old, works in the Naumkeag Mill. Has worked, 3 months. His Father works there.

Joseph Lassure, 8 years old, has worked in the Mill, 3 weeks. The children work, 6 months and then go to school 6 months—of half days ; making 234 hours of schooling, in the year.

The teacher said, that the children attending in the forenoon, were usually more attentive than the afternoon scholars.

It will be seen that, in Salem, children under 10 years of age are employed in the Mills, contrary to law.

At the time of our visit to Indian Orchard, the school was not in session ; our visit being in the forenoon, and the school-hours being from 1 to 4 P. M. Of this arrangement we were not aware.

PART III.

ARGUMENT AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

Education.

Really, if experience had not taught us otherwise, we should hardly have supposed it necessary to argue, before the people of Massachusetts, upon the importance of educating *all* her children, specially the rapidly increasing numbers of the working children of the State. Theoretically, even they who control the large number of youthful employés in *factories, shops and stores, and who have within twenty-five years past*, supplied or introduced a large portion of that class, for whose education we plead, concede—but only theoretically—its importance. Practically, in the continuance of long hours and in neglect of the school law, they oppose all effort in that direction. Nay, further, in testimony given before a legislative committee, we heard a prominent manufacturer say, that he was importing help from the pauper population of England, than which a more thoroughly and stolidly ignorant race cannot be found in the wide world. And to these, is fast being added the race of French Canadians ; who are not only ignorant themselves, but wholly destitute of any desire that their children should be educated. It may be well for the new comers to get within reach of better influences, but not so well, perhaps, for the educational reputation of the State. And yet, these employers will, without dissent, acknowledge that the educated laborer possesses by far the greater dexterity, greater trustworthiness, superior habit of thought and of contrivance ;

and, much more quickly seeing the end from the beginning of a process, contrives new methods or eliminates unnecessary details from old ones; and so, again, increases and improves production,—giving better quality and decreasing cost.

In every Report upon the subjects of “Children in Factories” and of “Labor in Massachusetts,” strong language of warning, and the most urgent entreaty have been employed, though vainly, now these four years past, to induce efficient and prompt legislation in behalf of the large and increasing numbers of children in factory, shop and street, growing up in ignorance. It has been declared, on proof absolutely incontrovertible, that nothing but systematic *compulsion*, brought to bear upon employer, parent and child, will remedy the evil and fend off the sure disasters that will follow further neglect. It seems to be supposed, that the present method of the treatment of these unschooled children is not only necessary, but unavoidable. Every expert in educational matters knows that children, taken from school at eight or nine years, soon forget about all they have learned; and those who have watched the operation and influence of the Three-Month system of schooling,—as compared with those of the Half Time system—know that while the former is vastly better than nothing, it is very greatly inferior to the latter, in permanently fixing knowledge in the child’s mind.

Now the real truth lies just between the constancy of work and the constancy of schooling; the constant pressure upon the brain, and the constant pressure upon the hand. Work, under a true method of education, would supplement the school, and the school would supplement work; and the children would thus acquire industrial habits of both head and hand. Hitherto, we have, here in Massachusetts, thrown all our educational strength in the direction of the mind. The time is now come, when a part of that strength must be turned to aid the hand. The details, thought and experience will elaborate; but we believe the principle to be settled, that elementary training in industrial art, must be incorporated into the Massachusetts system of schools.

Now while it is true that, in Massachusetts, a surpassingly great and most praiseworthy work has been done in the providing of educational means, there is a great and constantly increasing demand that such means shall reach all for whom they

are intended. The tables for the feast are ready ; good and substantial food is placed thereon ;—many guests are present and partaking ;—but the educational starvelings,—themselves and their guardians, equally thoughtless of the famine that will destroy them,—*are not there* ; and it is time that the State sent her servants “ out into the highways and hedges, and *compelled* them to come in.”

Yes, *compelled* them ; and the parable uses just the word that expresses the strong obligations she is under to prevent the irreparable wrong that she herself will inflict upon the unconstrained guests, if they be permitted to grow up without the nutritive blessings of this feast. We believe that public sentiment is already ripe for action, and ready to sustain any forceful appliances that resolute legislation will render effective. But there should be no wincing timidity about it. The duty must not be delegated to a *single* individual, unsustained by assistants. It must not be left to anybody and everybody ; for then uncertain and divided responsibility reduces these two to a negative nobody, and the result is zero.

The argument, that State interference will be trenching upon individual rights may be classed with the arguments against the right of the State to enact laws for the protection of its citizens and itself against the spread of disease, either in man or beast ; against its right to shut up lunatics in asylums, or villains of any degree, in prison. We know that there have been superlative rascals and colossal rascalities among men said to be educated ; but we hazard nothing, in saying that their education was without the vastly important element that leavens all education with moral purity. Heart and soul must have been left uneducated, and therefore failed in being imbued with that lofty and impressible sense of virtue which repels the very thought of wrong with a sort of moral shudder.

Dr. Chalmers said—with entire justness—that it is, without question, both the duty and the right of the civil power to educate the people ; such right and such duty resting on two distinct principles, one economic and the other judicial. Education adds directly to the economic value of men, helping them under all circumstances ; helping them specially, when art brings forward new and better machinery, and science new and better methods, to accommodate themselves thereunto, and so increas-

ing enormously the productive efficiency of their labor. That large portion of the people who are educated, and are also living by their own exertions of brain or hand, contributes, with generous certainty, to the wealth of the country, while a very large portion of those who are uneducated, not only contributes nothing thereto, but is a positive burden upon the community; and upon the reason that, by education, you can diminish the numbers that make up this last set, rests the economic principle. And the judicial principle rests on the fact that the laws of a country are *written* laws; written for the guidance of the people; and, to be guided by them, the people must be able to read them. In one of our cotton mills, more than one-half of its 1,600 operatives, (they are foreigners), can neither read nor write. Now, about the premises, are posted up the printed rules and regulations, by which these operatives are to be guided, and the contracts under which they are held, when they enter the employ of the company. What real right, aside from might, has this company to enforce contracts over those who cannot read them? * It is not expected that people, toiling through the long working hours of all the working days of a year, should read all the huge tomes that comprise the laws; but they should be made competent to ascertain the average breadth and scope of law; and, on this, is founded the judicial right of the State to *compel* education; and the State that fails to do this, is more to be blamed therefor, than the ignorant party, whom, by her neglect, she has allowed to ripen into crime. Specially is this true in a State like Massachusetts, which disfranchises its citizens who are unable to write, and to read its Constitution in the English language,—she, by her own neglect, permitting their ignorance, and then punishing them for its consequences. No boast that she has advantages beyond other commonwealths and virtues above average states, will whiten out the spots that thus dim her general lustre and fair fame.

But what shall we say to the parents who plead, and not without reason, under present methods of cheap labor and of

* Michael Tobin and McGee of Hartford, employés of the Russell and Ernin manufacturing company, long maintained a suit against that company to recover wages withheld because they did not give the notice of intent to leave as the posted rules of the company require. The plaintiffs won on the ground that *they cannot read at all*, and so the posted rules did not become a part of the contract.

“getting most work for least pay,”—that they are absolutely too poor to spare their children from wage-labor that they may get some instruction? This plea is the short-sighted argument of persons so little educated themselves, that they are not able to take any enlarged views in the matter; and who, confining their thoughts to the small monthly earnings of their children, ignore the fact, that these earnings would, after education had ripened the children for more productive labor, become greatly enlarged. They are too poor to wait awhile, for the better income; and are not without well-founded apprehension, that, if, because of some little time lost, in acquiring some little knowledge, the earnings of their children being immediately decreased, the general earnings of the household will be permanently decreased. They do not think that such a withdrawal of children from the general supply, would operate to raise the price of adult labor; since it is well known that a great reason urged for the employment of children, is its cheapness; and that that very cheapness tends to reduce the wages of the adult. Were the example, set by the Naumkeag Mills, in Salem, of but a small percentage of decreased pay, followed throughout the State, the immediate loss of earnings would be reduced to a comparatively low figure, and no parent could reasonably object.

Now it is not enough that we have good schools; to be frequented, they must present allurements over the powerful allurements of both wage-labor and absenteeism. Make it manifest that education will insure employment and increased wage, and truancy will lose its allurements; and there will be no “creeping, like snail, unwillingly to school.” If a compulsory educational law be but once firmly established and steadily operative, let it but have produced its legitimate effect upon one generation, and there will be no danger that the people will fall back into the old, habitual disregard for instruction; or, that officers will be needed to enforce its requirements. Each educated parent, knowing, by daily, practical use, the benefits he has received himself, will not deny them to his offspring, but will rather become the law’s most efficient officer, in enforcing it. For this reason is it, that we hear so little of the actual enforcement of the compulsory school law

of Prussia,* and are told that the law has become inert. The nation has been educated beyond the necessity of officers of such a law, and its inaction is the strongest testimony in its favor. A father, in Prussia, would as soon withhold food and clothing from his child's body, as he would withhold the means of growth and habiliment from his mind. He knows now that neither the one nor the other should be neglected.

But, here, in Massachusetts,—we write it sorrowfully, but under a sense of duty to her reputation,—matters have gone so far in neglect of her working children, that silence would be sinfully unpatriotic, while warning is truest and most deferential love.

Here, too, in these very United States, according to the last census, there are *five millions of children, of school age, that never attend any school!* With the examples before us of the condition of Spain, Italy, France, England, with their thousands of untaught children and utterly ignorant hordes of adult peasants and city rabble, and the fearful dread under which the governments live, or have lived, of outbreak, riot and rebellion among their commons, so long neglected, what are we thinking about, that we permit ourselves to be any longer exposed to the risk of similar peril? It is idle to believe that any State can neglect the development of the mental, moral, and physical capabilities of her children, without endangering her existence. Surely she who gives no protection is entitled to none from the unprotected; and, in securing to them the education to which they have a God-given right, she best secures their and her own protection; and, in this view, education, voluntary or compulsory, becomes the protection of both child and State.

In an article in the "American Church Review," for January, 1872, upon the works of Benjamin Disraeli, occurs this passage, pregnant with meaning:—

"There is an uneasy feeling that, in case of invasion, the masses could not be trusted. In the war of this country with England (1812-14), which turned on the right of impressing seamen, it is said, that impressed men on board British frigates had a trick, in loading a gun, of putting in the cannon ball before they put in the cartridge! If a continental nation should

* See Appendix for an article on the Schools of Germany by N. T. Allen, Esq., of West Newton.

invade England, with the cry of 'Workmen's Rights.*' how will the appeal 'Rally round your Hearths and Homes!' affect the dwellers in the *back slums* of Manchester and Birmingham," and London?

What inducement would they have to strike in defence of a "three pair back," 12 by 10, with 7-foot post; the dwelling, eating and sleeping house of "Ginx and his dozen children?" And equally small inducement for protective zeal and energy, would be presented by the filthy back slums and tenement houses of Boston and New York. If their dwellers fight it will be for pay, not for their altars and their fires. Let us see how we are tending in New England. General Eaton, U. S. Commissioner on Education, will soon issue a series of statistics to be embodied in his annual report, setting forth the relation of education to crime in the New England States. From this it appears—first, that eighty per cent. of the criminals in these States have no education, or not sufficient to serve their available purposes in life; second, eighty to ninety per cent. of the criminals have never learned any trade, nor are they master of any skilled labor; third, not far from seventy-five per cent. of the crimes committed are by persons of foreign extraction; fourth, eighty to ninety per cent. of the criminals are intemperate; fifth, ninety-five per cent. of the juvenile offenders came from idle, ignorant, vicious and drunken homes.

There are, we concede, difficulties to be met and overcome. So there are in everything that is worth doing. Let us meet and overcome these; or, we shall be compelled, hereafter, to meet greater difficulties that may overpower us. What are some of them? The chief are these problems:—

I.—How to induce very poor parents to be willing to deny themselves a little more, that their children may receive, at least the legal amount of schooling up to their sixteenth year; that is, from about six to fifteen years of age inclusive.†

II.—How to make such arrangements, with the educational authorities of the several Cities and Towns, as will secure their coöperation and aid in carrying out the provisions of the statute;

* Our cry in that war, was "Sailors' Rights."

† Here crops out the poverty question again, that omnipotent evil that thrusts its face at us, at every step we take for the bettering of mankind.

in securing the rights of the children, as against parents and employers; and the rights of employers against the misrepresentations of parents and children, in matters of the age and the schooling of such children.

III.—How to arrange a uniform system, throughout the State, under which it might be known how many children there are between 10 and 15 years of age, in the State; how many of them are not attending any school, and why; how many of them are at work, and at what work and wages, and how many hours a week they are so employed; and whether this work extends over more than nine months in each and every year.

IV.—How to devise and set into thorough operation, a system of inspection in every portion of the State, under which the necessary officials should be enabled, without hindrance or intervention of employers, to enter any premises wherein children are employed, and, coming into contact with the children themselves, learn from them all needed facts in each several case.

V.—How to arrange such form of prohibitory statute as should insure conviction in case of violation of law in these premises; and by which any officers of the law, who neglected to prosecute for offence, should themselves become liable to penalty for such neglect.

VI.—How, in case that a regular *Half-Time School* be, for any cause, deemed inexpedient in any given locality, *Half-Time classes* may be arranged in ordinary schools, with the least disadvantage to the other interests of the school.

Now, as children are, or ought to be, though with too many exceptional cases, under the control of parents, the main object will be nearly effected, if we can make the parents *wish* to send their children to school, as is, universally, the case in Prussia,—where each parent is a quasi truant officer for his own children. If you ask any parent if he desire his children should learn, the reply will be, invariably, in the affirmative; but with the addition by the very poor, that it is hard to live without their earnings. Now the great difficulty is to accomplish both the school and the earnings; and it is manifest, that a compromise must be effected and each yield a little,—in order to secure something of both. This the HALF-TIME system accomplishes; and it is doubly efficient where the course pursued at the Naum-

keag Mills is adopted. Here the children all get their schooling, and while at school, lose, *not one-half of their wages*, but only about one-third, each school week; no additional deduction being made, *except when the child is reported by the Teacher to the Mill Agent, as having been absent from school, without satisfactory excuse*. The truest and best system is where there are children enough in a given locality to have a *double supply*; so that, all the year round, one-half might be in Mill or Shop, and the other half in school;—and this method to be arranged for *alternate days*,—instead of alternate halves of the same day. There is the added advantage, attending this system, that a much larger number of children could be employed and earn something. But, better still would it be, and curative of all difficulties, if there were legal prohibition against the employment of any children, under 15 years of age; and not then, unless they had secured the elements of an English education and elementary skill in a trade. Miss Mary Carpenter, of London, a witness of the very highest value, and recently elected, under the new Educational Laws, a Member of the City School Committee of London, and herself a practical Teacher for more than 20 years, says, that “children taken from school at 9 and put at work in factories and shops, have, at 14, forgotten nearly all they have ever learnt” And she strongly favors the influence of the evening school, for workers of 14 years old and upwards, to supplement their previous acquirements.

Under the present system of supervising our public schools by elected School Committees, it is not possible,—at any rate, in our large and busy communities,—to find *competent* persons who are willing, or who can afford the time, to perform their duties in that thorough manner which the interest of real education demands. In very many places, the establishing of the office of a Superintendent is intended to remedy this difficulty. And it would effect the object, were he not, as in some towns, burdened, at the same time, with the added functions of Chief Janitor and Master Mechanic, to the hindrance of his proper duties as chief Educator. Where such an officer exists, unhampered by incongruous work, he could well supplement the work of a School Committee, in supervising a system of Half-Time

Schools or Classes ; specially, if he be aided by competent and efficient Truant Officers, and keep up a steady communication with parents, teachers and employers.

In arranging a uniform system, throughout the State, for the children whose interest is to be looked after, nothing but effective legislation, that does not “palter in a double sense,” nor leave loopholes of words through which violators may escape, can accomplish the needed result. The present law is utterly useless ; is generally neglected and a decided failure. Our IV., V. and VI. propositions are all dependent upon similar, needed legislation.

HALF-TIME SCHOOLS.

The Legislature of 1871, passed the following Resolve :—

[CHAP. 82.]

RESOLVE in relation to Half-time Schools.

Resolved, That the bureau of statistics of labor be directed to prepare and present to the next legislature, a plan for a system of half-time, ungraded schools for children between ten and fifteen years of age employed in manufacturing and other establishments in the state, who attend school only a part of the day. [*Approved May 26, 1871.*]

When this Resolve was under consideration in the Senate it was amended, in the first line, so as to read “*Resolved*, That the *Board of Education* be directed to prepare, &c., &c.”—assigning the duty to the educational department of the State, where it would seem that it more appropriately belonged. For, while it is a specified function of this Bureau “to collect and present annually,” with other details, “statistics upon the educational condition of the laboring classes,” the construction of the Resolve seems to imply that it is to *ascertain* the existing educational condition of these classes, and inform the Legislature thereof, rather than to devise means for the actual improvement of that condition. Under this construction the Bureau gave, in its First Report (Sen. Doc. No. 120, 1870, pp. 134 to 155), remarks upon the Factory-Child Law of 1867 (chap. 285), pointing out its great defects and the impossibility of its enforcement. It also gave an account of the Factory-childrens’ schools, in Fall River, Salem, and Indian Orchard (Springfield),

recommending as an efficient remedy, that "*no child should be employed, under the age of 13* years (to be certified to by a physician); nor then, unless such child has received instruction in the elements of a common English education; that fact to be certified by the School Committee of the town wherein such child lives or is employed.*"

In the same Report, was pointed out the constant and overt violation of the law which forbids the employment of children over 10 hours a day, or, 60 hours a week.

In its Second Report (Sen. Doc. No. 150, 1871), the subject is renewed; the continued violation of the Statute against long hours for children, and of that providing for their schooling, is alluded to; and, in each Report, the fact is made known, that children, *under 10 years of age, are among those employed these long hours, and are likewise deprived of their legitimate schooling.* Urgent entreaty was also made for such new legislation as would prevent this continued wrong, and secure to these neglected younglings their just, protective, physical and intellectual defence. Nothing was accomplished, nor were any of our recommendations referred to, legislative committee for consideration.

Now when this Resolve, thus amended, reached the hands of the engrossing clerk in the secretary's office, it was engrossed *without the amendment*; and the error was not noticed by the Committee on Bills in the third reading; and so the Resolve passed in the form of making it the duty of this Bureau to prepare the system.

We have, therefore, made the objects of the Resolve a study and instituted many inquiries as to the feasibility of a uniform law, applicable to all cases. There seem to be no insurmountable difficulties in the large manufacturing centres, nor in cities or towns of a compact population, where considerable numbers of children are employed in stores or shops. The real difficulties are where the population is thin and widely scattered. Here, the method must be that of HALF-TIME, UNGRADED CLASSES, in the ordinary schools. Now an examination of this Resolve will show that its closing words limit the provisions of the plan to be prepared, to *a class of children already provided for; or else, to a class that does not exist.*

* 15 years would be still better.

For, of the children contemplated, it may logically be said, that they either “attend school a part of the day,” or they do not. Now if they do “attend school, part of the day,” *they are already provided for*, and no legislation is needed to meet their case; and, on the other hand, if they do not “attend school part of the day,” they do not *belong to the class referred to in the Resolve*; for that speaks only of those who already “attend school part of the day.”

Limited by the phraseology of the Resolve, the Bureau has been under no little embarrassment, and felt compelled to confine its action in the premises to further inquiries; and by conference with employers, school superintendents, and school committees, and other parties who feel an interest in this class of children. There is hardly a diversity of opinion on both the importance and necessity of efficient and systematic action. The difficulty lies in devising a system which will accommodate itself to the greatly varying circumstances of our working population. For it is among them that these children are to be found.

Yet we are inclined to think that there is sufficient authority with School Committees already to establish distinct schools for Half-Time children; or distinct Half-Time classes in ordinary schools. It is only to dispense, in their case, with the common method of strict grading now general in schools. Let us see, in this connection, what a true Half-Time School is.

The system is of English origin, and was intended to secure to the children engaged in textile factories and other continuous labor, three hours of schooling on each working day; the working portion of the day being limited to an average of five, six, or seven hours; or to provide that school-whole-days and work-whole-days should alternate with each other.

The famous “Ten Hours Act” of June 8, 1847, restricted the hours of labor of *Young Persons, under Eighteen (18) years of age, and females, to ten hours a day, and fifty-eight hours a week*; and it is well known that this Act has practically operated as a general reduction of the hours of labor, in consequence of the interdependence of the labor of men, and of that of women and young persons. To this boon, was added (1850) the Saturday half-holiday,—work closing at 2 o’clock P. M. on that day. The working hours are to be selected from

those between 6 A. M. and 6 P. M., excepting, under certain conditions, between October and April, when they may, be selected from those between 7 A. M. and 7 P. M. In no case, however, were they to extend beyond 2 o'clock on Saturday, on which day work is continued, without stopping for dinner, from 6 or 7 (as the case may be), to 2 P. M., the stopping on other days being at noon with one hour for dinner.

The Factory Acts also introduced COMPULSORY EDUCATION, it being a fundamental principle of this legislation, that no child, under thirteen years of age, shall be permitted to work, unless he spends fifteen (15) hours, each week, at school. In this way, the Half-Time system was introduced, the required schooling being secured by the child's spending half the day at school and half the day at work; or one day at school and one day at work. And this has proved signally successful; the alternate working and schooling mutually assisting each other; school, as a relief from work, and work, as a relief from school. But we must not misunderstand the phrase, "half the day at School." It means what is ordinarily understood by half-a-day's schooling; that is, *three hours at school*; and that would give 6 to 7 hours, or an average of 5 hours of work; which is as long as any child ought to be required or allowed to work. And, for children of the class now spoken of, three hours a day is as long as their attention can be kept alive at study; and experience has shown that they get on as well as ordinary children in full-time schools. Here, in Massachusetts, we work them *eleven and twelve* and often in the summer 14 hours a day, *nearly twice as long*; and we have no efficient legislation, or, rather, we neglect what legislation we have, and take no steps to prevent the abuse of the law limiting the child's time; nor of the law requiring that mill-children shall receive three months of schooling, in each year. But to return.

This Half-Time Schooling takes the children from 9 years of age—the lowest at which they are allowed to work—up to 13, when they are considered to be young persons. So that they get *4 years of schooling continuously*, of 310 days each, 3 hours a day; and in that time, under competent Teachers, they secure a very fair amount of education. And it is not left at hap-hazard, anybody's, everybody's or nobody's duty to see that this schooling is a sure thing. A corps of Inspectors, with

right to enter Mill or work establishment of any sort, to question owner, superintendent, or employer of any sort, who were *compelled* to give proper replies, attended to the matter, and likewise attended to the enforcement of the laws against unguarded machinery, so that life and limb might be more secure.

The following statement gives, in detail, the features of the English Half-Time School System. It is to be borne in mind, that some of these Schools are *exclusively* Half-Time Schools, no ordinary whole-day scholars attending them ; their members being *all* half-time workers and half-time scholars ;—while others are mixed, having Half-time *classes* of working children, and *whole-time* classes of other children. No difficulty is recorded as growing out of this mixture, though we do not find accounts of the methods of class management. With school-houses of sufficient capacity of rooms, and a sufficient number of Teachers, no impractical obstacles, we think, would impede the management.

1. The half-time children are divided into two lots. One party attending school in the forenoon, from 9 to 12 o'clock, and the other from 2 to 5 o'clock P. M., from Monday to Friday inclusive.

2. The children attending school in the forenoon, do not go to work in the Factory, until afternoon.

3. The children who work in the forenoon, go to their work, at 6 o'clock in the morning, and work until 1 o'clock P. M., with a stoppage of $\frac{1}{2}$ hour for breakfast. They leave work at 1 P. M., and go to school at 2 P. M., until 5 P. M. ; and the remainder of the day is their own.

The children who have been to school in the morning, go to their work in the factory at 2 P. M., and work until 6 P. M.

Saturday.

The children, who have been to school during the forenoons of that week, have nothing to do but play (there being no school on Saturday) until 12 o'clock noon, when they go to work and work until 2 P. M., and have then done for the day.

The children, who work in the forenoon, leave their work at 12 o'clock noon, on Saturday ; when they have done for the day.

Wages.

The wages paid for half timers is about half as much as what is paid to full timers.

Children absenting themselves from school, without leave from the proper authorities, will be likely to be discharged from the Factory.

The children who go to school in the forenoon, do so for one month,—when they change, and those, who went in the forenoon, go in the afternoon; and those, who went to school in the afternoon, will go in the forenoon; and thus they go on from time to time.

No child, under 9 years of age, is allowed to work in the mill at all. And no child, between the ages of 9 and 13 years, is allowed to work more than half-time or $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours in any one day;—and this time is to be worked in the forenoon or afternoon; but, under no circumstance, is the same child allowed to work before dinner and after dinner, on the same day. So it is seen that every child has one-half of every working day, for recreation and school.

Every child, before being employed in the mills, is medically inspected, and a certificate, as to its age and fitness for mill work, is put on record.

Now let us look at the methods of our three half-time schools in Massachusetts, and see if they be as efficient as those in England.

At Fall River, the children of the factories are employed $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours a day;—the 10 hour restriction being wholly disregarded. But, for school purposes, our law is complied with. The mill children are divided into *four* sets; each set consisting of one-quarter of the children in each several mill. Four times a year, say, on the first days of January, April, July, and October, these details from each mill are gathered into one set at the school-house, and pass the following three months under instruction in the common branches of an ordinary English education, with singing by rote. The three months being ended, the school-set returns to the Mills, and there works the next following nine months, $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours a day. The advantages of this system over the usual one of total neglect, are incalculable; not the least being that each school-day is a day of entire freedom from the Mill; and what time is not given in school may

be given to recreative play. Their pay is wholly stopped during the school three months; and, to carry the system out, will require 25 per cent. more children than the running machinery requires, to make good the absentees at school. The disadvantage is, the very great probability that much of what is learnt in the three months, will be forgotten in the ensuing nine months of work.

By the Naumkeag Mills method, a sufficient number of children is employed to enable the mills to spare one set of them for school, each half-day, forenoon or afternoon, for 26 weeks of the year;—so that, alternating with each other, the two sets attend school and tend machinery, and so each set gets its thirteen weeks, or three months schooling required by law. The pay of the children attending school is diminished about 16 per cent., unless *they causelessly absent themselves from school*; and then, a further reduction is made. This method is the nearest we have in its approach to the full English Half Time system, and is, so far, an improvement over the Fall River system, and better than the Indian Orchard system, in giving the children some time, each school-day, for recreation. For instance, the forenoon set of children does not go to Mill till one o'clock, P.M., each day; having had till that hour, for meals, play and school; the afternoon set leaves the mill at 12, noon,—and has the rest of the day for meals, school and play; and these two sets alternate, every fortnight, so as to make everything about equal to every child. The earnings of the children will average about \$2.64 a week, or \$137.28, a year. During their 26 weeks of Half Time schooling, they are paid \$1.75 a week, for what work they do in the Mill (on the other half-day), no other deduction being made unless, as we have said, the child is, without cause, absent from school. The total loss, then, to a child at school for these 26 weeks, is (at the rate of 89 cents a week), \$23.14; and its annual earnings, at \$2.64 for 26 work-weeks, and \$1.75 for 26 school-weeks, are \$114.14. And to this compromise the parents assent; since they see and acknowledge that the gain to the children far outweighs the money-loss to themselves.

Under the Indian Orchard method, the children go to the Mill in the morning, with the other operatives, and work till noon. Going out then, they take dinner, and at one o'clock, go to their school-room; here they remain under instruction

until 4 o'clock, three hours (recess being allowed), when they return to Mill; their work (principally doffing), being so arranged that their services are not needed during school time. They are thus eight (8) hours at work, and three (3) hours at school, each day, the Mill running 11 hours per day. Taking 310 days as the number of working-days of the year, the Fall River children get $77\frac{1}{2}$ days schooling; the Naumkeag children $77\frac{1}{2}$, each having $232\frac{1}{2}$ days of work; while the Indian Orchard children, with 3 hours schooling on each of the 310 working days, get $84\frac{1}{2}$ days schooling, and only $225\frac{1}{2}$ days of work. Earning, as they do, \$2.10 a week, their year's earnings would be \$109.20. Under the alternate-day method, now used in Massachusetts, the children would work 30 hours a week, and have 18 hours schooling per week—with chance for play and exercise on school days.

Now, it seems to us that with the establishment of Half Time Schools, with an enforcement of compulsory and prohibitory laws, by officers specially assigned to the duty, and themselves responsible to the chief educational officer of the State, to whom quarterly reports of their doings should be made, he to inform the Legislature in his Annual Reports, we might reasonably hope to rid ourselves of the reproach that we now justly bear, of neglecting the class of children for whose benefit these schools should be created; and so protect the State against the danger that has already assailed us, and has produced its worst effects in the shameless misrule of the greatest City of the Continent, by an ignorant and dangerous class; a City of whose children it is said to be rigidly true that the larger proportion get no schooling *beyond that of the primary schools*.

Now children must, when brought under instruction, be taught those things which will be of service to them in the common affairs of life. But what are they? Clearly these:

I.—The use of language; that they may know how to think and to give expression to thought. These they will attain by READING, and by exercises in DICTATION, LETTER WRITING and COMPOSITION. *Spelling* will come in here.

II.—The use of the eye, the ear and the hand, both as aids to mental operations and in facilitating the business of life.

This use they will acquire by WRITING, DRAWING and MUSIC, and some Industrial Art.

III.—How to observe, to reflect, to reason upon a subject, and so to acquire great truths. Here will come in an enlarged system of OBJECT LESSONS, and the great facts of Earth and Sky, as illustrated in TOPICAL and PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ASTRONOMY, and the elements of NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

IV.—How to transact business. Here will come in MENTAL AND WRITTEN ARITHMETIC, simple methods of KEEPING ACCOUNTS, the Science of Forms and its applications, as taught by GEOMETRY in its simpler elements.

V.—The discipline and formation of character. And here come in the subjects of morality, of duties to God and Man, being the great precepts of CHRISTIAN MORALS;—here the influence of the HISTORY OF NATIONS, and of INDIVIDUALS, as instruction and warning, History in its true signification, civil, social, industrial, rather than warlike and of Hero-worship.

VI.—The physical discipline of the body. And here comes in a variety of exercises *Gymnastic*, *Military* and others, aiding physical development, and preparing for industrial, personal labor.

Now if we can but accomplish this great object, and, in its aid, we pleadingly invoke all good citizens, we shall be sure to find an improved state of things in Massachusetts. Personal influence and no little sacrifice, we know, will be needed, and of the latter not the least will be demanded of those for whose benefit, more directly, the effort is made. These are the laboring classes, the men of the smallest wage, (and these generally have the largest families), whose children are compelled to toil at unseasonable ages, and through unreasonable hours, to keep hunger from the door. Look at it for a moment. Take the cases cited on p. 461. The parent of a child working at the Naumkeag Mills, and attending school, half-time for 26 weeks, really sacrifices \$23.14, 17 per cent. out of what would be the child's annual earnings of \$137.28. It is really, on his part, a payment right out of so much money. To be sure, he is not taxed for cost of schooling, or books; but he none the less has to pay this amount, and it is so much loss to him. Now if an

income tax of 17 per cent. were levied on the general public, would there not be a loud protest against such oppression?

We do not adduce this as an argument against the compulsion that puts the child to school; but, rather, to show that if the poor man consents to so great a pecuniary loss, the general tax-payer ought most willingly to consent to such increased expenditure of the municipal taxes as would secure to these children the inestimable blessings of education. We know that, in the end, great good will practically inure to the parent from the increased wage that an educated child will be sure to gain; and that, so, he will be more than likely to get his lost money back again. But will no good come to the general tax-payer, and to the general community, by there being an educated, in place of an ignorant working class? Will there be no return of his moneys, because of less public expenditure for suppression and punishment of crime,—the legitimate and sure offspring of ignorance in mind and morals? Will there be no better return from his investments, in industrial establishments growing out of the increased production by means of improved machinery, which some of these educated laborers will have originated? Will there be no benefit to him, to us all, to the whole race of man, that the race itself shall be so lifted up out of the debasement and degradation, now so palpably in the ascendant, that

“All crime shall cease, and ancient fraud shall fail;
Returning justice lift aloft her scale.”

For was there ever a time known in our history, when the “abomination of desolation” in wickedness and crime was more shamelessly rampant than now,—when the vast aggregation of inordinate riches by the few, has produced inordinate poverty among the many,—when the greed for wealth has seemed to justify the most nefarious means in its acquisition,—and when it seemed a necessity to herald honesty in a money-trusted official, as a virtue of great rarity, amidst prevailing knavery? Never, it would seem, was there so teemingly abundant proof that “the *love* of money is the root of all evil”

We maintain that every child has a right, an inalienable right, to such education, as will qualify him to master the possibilities of the civilization into which he may have been born.

And further, we believe that the ignoring of this right has led to the existence of that most undesirable class of persons, that is found in connection with the highest culture and refinement. We believe that it has led to the evil of the vast disproportion in the distribution of the proceeds of labor; causing unnecessary wealth for some and unnecessary poverty for the many. We believe that the ignoring of this right has caused the profound, and almost incredible ignorance that exists, everywhere, among the low-paid manual producers of wealth. There is a wage that is just; and there is a wage that is unjust, even though it be assented to in contract, when necessity knows no law. That wage is unjust which is not the just balance of its representative labor; for a penny-weight of wage cannot be the equipoise of a pound of labor. By just wage for just labor, according to the rank of it, as Ruskin well says, a man can obtain the means of comfortable, or even of refined life—refined in some degree, since refinement is a thing of degree,—and to such wage, every man is entitled for his labor. Now it would seem that a system, which, after centuries of trial, has placed classes of laborers, in some countries, in a state of degradation and ignorance, without the simplest elements of education, without culture of body, mind or soul,—whose position is such that the help of wives, whose proper duties are those of home, and the help of children, whose proper places are those of the school-room and play-ground, must be enlisted, to secure the means of mere bodily existence for them all, must be essentially and radically wrong. And we believe that no remedies will be found adequate to cure the disease, till the world shall be educated up to the belief and made resolute to its enforcement, that more time must be allotted to education and less to toil. And then, when education in its loftiest meaning, education of hearts, heads and hands, shall have taken the place of the defective, partial and class education that has produced, and is continuing the present, defective, partial, and class-condition of society, there shall be found a new order of beings replenishing and blessing the earth; a new order of men, real and not nominal members of the social body, readers, thinkers, inventors, actors in all good, making two blades of grass to grow where only one grew before; two yards of cloth to every one now loomed; two pounds of power for every one that now

struggles against resisting machinery ; doubling earth's yield everywhere in everything ; living, not in luxury, God forbid ! but in abiding, substantial comfort, with culture, refinement of heart, head, home, and all observance ; purifying the whole social atmosphere, blessing each his fellowman, and all honoring God, the author and giver of all good.

Unschool'd Children in Massachusetts,

Or, to state the subject matter in another form, *the children in Massachusetts not accounted for as in any school whatever, public or private*, in our educational statistics ; and these will be found to be too numerous for the good name of the State, and so many as to demand effective interference in their behalf,—lest some unmanageable evil come of further neglect, evil to both the children and the State.

We are led to a consideration of this subject, and to a study of the pertinent statistics, by our own observation of the very great number of children, of ages between 8 and 15, whom we have seen in shop and factory, during official visits ; and of whom we have learnt, on inquiry, that very many *had not been inside of a school-house for periods varying from 12 months to four years*. These inquiries we have made, because the language of the Resolve creating this Bureau, directs us to inquire into a report upon the *educational* condition of the working people of the State, and in this class is to be found a very large number of children. With the knowledge thus obtained, we consulted the school statistics of the Commonwealth as returned under law, and according to a prescribed set of inquiries, on a blank form, sent every year to the School Committees of the several Cities and Towns of the State. The replies are given under oath, and include the basis of the figurate portion of the annual Reports of the State Board of Education, comprising the educational history of the several school years, between April and April.

Among these statistics, will be found the whole number of children in the State, on the 1st of May of each year, between 5 and 15 years of age ;—and, besides the number of children of *all ages*, including some *under 5* and some *over 15*, attending the *public* schools ; together with the whole number of all ages attending *private* schools.

Now, to determine the number of children not at school, *between 5 and 15 years*, we must first *deduct*, from those of *all ages* at school, the number between 5 and 15, and then deduct this remainder from the whole number in the State between 5 and 15, and we shall get the non-attendants at *Public Schools, between those ages*. And, to get the *entire* school attendance of the State, we must *add* to those of *all ages* at Public Schools, all those attending Private or Evening Schools.

Now, in the Inaugural Address of Governor Washburn to the present Legislature (1872), the number of children *not* attending public schools is given at 4,588, so small a number out of the whole number of 278,249 between 5 and 15 years of age on the first of May, 1870, as to be exceedingly gratifying. But its very smallness, compared with figures of previous years, and with these indicating the *average* non-attendance for recent years, ranging between 26 and 29 per cent. induced an examination which revealed a less gratifying result. The above number, 4,588, is the difference between the children of *all ages* in school and those between 5 and 15 years in the whole State, and therefore is too small by all those under 5 and those above 15—being a total of 24,687, which would carry the *non-attendance* up to 29,275. The same Report (1872), gives us the *average non-attendance* at school for the year (April 1870–71), at 27 per cent. of all those (278,249), between 5 and 15 years of age, said percentage yielding the very great number of 76,499! This is, doubtless, too large; but the most liberal discount would still leave too great a number of absentees.

Without doubt, there are errors, all but unpardonable, in many of these returns,—errors to be accounted for only on the supposition of carelessness, or incompetency to understand their method, and object and scope. That such is the fact is plain from the returns in the Report for 1872, which gives as results from data supplied by School Committees, an increase in the schools of 26,280 children over that of the previous year, when the whole increase in the State, was but 8,262!

In proof of the probable exactness of our number of unschooled children—(about 30,000—for the year 1870–71),—we give the result of computations made for previous years—since 1865:—

In 1865, of 247,275 children, 25,074 did not attend.					
1866, of 255,323	"	31,205	"	"	"
1867, of 261,498	"	30,259	"	"	"
1868,* of 266,745	"	25,407	"	"	"
1869, of 269,987	"	29,344	"	"	"
1870, of 278,249	"	29,275	"	"	"

In Boston, the Returns made by the School authorities to the Board of Education, show 46,301 children, between 5 and 15 and only 36,868 at any school, public or private, leaving 9,443, or about 20 per cent. *not accounted for*. Whether the sworn returns are correct, we do not know, but such are the figurate results from the data given. We most sincerely hope, that even the smallest number of non-attendants derived from any correct computations, or from any explanations, may be still further reduced. The honor and welfare of the State demand it.

PURCHASING POWER OF WAGES.

We have given the wages, earnings, cost of living and savings of the working classes at the present time. How much of comfort, of opportunity and of hope there is to the wage-laborer, can be gathered from the facts herewith presented; substantiated, as they are, by statements of employers, citizens and the working men and women themselves. As we have before said, we have sought information from all parties. Our advertisement, requesting correspondence, during the first year of our existence as a Bureau, has been followed by circulars addressed to persons of all sorts of idea, belief and experience. Every report, sent from this Office, contains such a circular, inviting the attention of the reader to the subject. In addition to these forms of inquiry, we have also searched into all the works on the subject, within our possible reach. The facts therein contained support this assertion,—that wage-laborers are poor, have always been poor, and that the great determiner of the earnings of labor, under the wage-system, is, and always has been, *the cost of living*; and that the cost of living is regulated by the circumstances of the times and the people. The following narrative is historic in its nature, covering a period of 500

* In 1868-69, Gen. Oliver visited many parts of the State to see to the carrying out of the Factory Child School Law, and the non-attendance diminished.

years, and is the result of research into the history of the working classes, as contained in the works of the most intelligent and reliable authors we could reach.

PURCHASING POWER OF WAGES IN ENGLAND.

The just historian, not ignoring what may be essential to the demands of history, will not fail to explore the inner recesses of domestic life; to inquire into and record the details of the diversified industry and employments of the wealth-producing classes; to look up their manner of life; their moral, social and educational culture; to learn about the comforts of all classes in a nation; to analyze the sources of a nation's greatness; and, by a just grouping into one view of all the characteristic points which make up the entire picture, to show the real condition, social and political, of a people; for these are indispensable in determining the defects or the merits of its organization, and help in predicating its stability and permanence.

In fact, it will no longer do to pass over, unrecorded, the character of a nation's social and industrial life; or to ignore the economical features of such life. Education, unequal as have been its work and its influences, has, nevertheless, in some lands, and especially here, raised up thinkers among the wealth-producing classes, and these thinkers have turned their thoughts to the condition of their fellows and to the wisest means of bettering it. Long time may be needed to accomplish what they believe ought to be accomplished, but none the less sure and perfect will be the work.

Influenced by these considerations, we gave in our first Report a brief, historical sketch of labor and laboring people and of legislation applicable to both, in England, from the beginning of the 14th century, and in the United States, from the date of their settlement; following it, in the second Report, with a history of Gilds, in the older times, and of Trades-Unions, in the later, to resist the push of power—governmental, corporate, moneyed or capitalized,—and to improve the laborer's condition. We shall now attempt to supplement these by some account—given as concisely as the nature of the subject will permit,—of the wages and earnings, and the purchasing power thereof of laboring men, at various historic

periods: beginning in England, about the commencement of the 14th century, and following it down as far as information can be gathered. The determination of such facts will enable us to judge what amount of domestic and social comfort, how many of the conveniences of life, what amount of education, refinement, and of religious means, the rank and file of the great army of wealth-producers have been able to achieve; and so, to determine satisfactorily whether the masses of mankind have, or have not been measurably benefited and bettered, as the wealth of the world has increased.

It has been said, and is still said, that the working classes, have heretofore made, and are now making, palpable and uninterrupted advance, and that, therefore, their present condition is better than it ever was before.

We, therefore, deem it advisable to look at the matter from another standpoint, and, ascertaining, with as good degree of certainty as we can, the labor earnings of certain classes of workmen, at differing periods of history, compare them with the cost of the necessities of life, at the same periods. By so doing, we can, in some measure, determine the existing condition of the laborer; whether or not he met his expenses by his income; whether or not there was anything remaining, which he might reserve for sickness, unemployed time, or for the imperative demands of an unproductive old age,—or, in other words, what may have been the purchasing power of his earnings, and what the residuum, if any.

A common and very expressive phrase applied to the mechanical powers, is their *purchase*, or their capability of overcoming resistance; and the only safe rule, and the general one, is, after an exact calculation of the effectiveness required, in any given case, to add a very large percentage thereto, as security against accident. In matters of wage, this rule is not used; the calculation being how to endow the laborer with the least possible power of purchase; leaving out of the computation the accidents that may befall him,—sickness, crippling, enlargement of family, or whatever other requirement, against which an added percentage might be a security.

The study of the subject of wages and their purchasing powers, from the 14th to the 19th century, cannot fail to impress an unprejudiced mind that normally—as the general rule,

with only exceptions growing out of peculiarly favorable circumstances,—the great mass of workmen, in every department of labor, has never been able to earn, over and above the cost of living, such an amount—call it capital gained or whatever else,—as would enable them to accumulate, from simple wage-earnings, such a sum as would, by its interest, enable them to “retire”—as it is called—when advanced years shall have rendered them wholly or partially unable to labor.

It is said that, in every branch of industry, with the exception of shipbuilding—not specially prosperous, just now,—prosperity is the manifest fact; a fact shown by the construction of railways, the growth of cities, the increased wages of laborers, the decrease of pauperism and the improvement made in Agriculture and the mechanic arts. The picture is full of warmth and beauty, and most comforting in its assurances. God be praised, if it be full of truth likewise, and there be no dark shadows to dim its beauty and obscure its promise. But we must omit for the present, the discussion of the question whether it be logical to reason that, because miles of railroads are under construction, therefore the laborers who excavate, fill up, and so prepare the grade,—the laborers who dig the ore, supply the furnace and cast the rails for the other laborers that put them in position, are prospering and growing rich;—that, because cities are growing, therefore they who dig and lay the foundations of great and small edifices, and rear their lofty or lowly walls, are growing rich; whether, because the deposits in savings banks are increasing to more millions, therefore the poor, for whose benefit theoretically, they were established, are the owners of these millions, and are, therefore, becoming less poor;—and that, because Colleges, Normal, High and other Schools are increasing in number and means, therefore, the children of the lowly and the laboring are obtaining their just share of education.

But let us look at this picture again and more closely. If we take it in its bright coloring alone, it fills us with just pride and grateful joy. Let us look for a moment, not at the grandeur of the railway, the enlarged limits of the City, the culture and taste of owner and builder, the marts and shops where commerce and trade gave birth to wealth, or the homes which this wealth has filled with refinement, with splendor of adornment,

and with ample means of generous hospitality, but at the actualities of the life-surroundings of those who, all down the line of time, have been the manual artisans and several handicraftsmen, who have augmented wealth, made realities of the wishes of capital and actualized the conceptions of refined taste.

An article, by Thomas Wright, an Engineer—England—in “Frazer’s Magazine,” published after the above was written, says—“What would be a fairly good condition of the working classes? It is this—that every man who is willing and able to work, should be able to obtain employment, at such wages, and with such constancy, as would enable him, by judicious management, to secure for himself and those depending on him, a sufficiency of plain food and clothing, and a dwelling with air-space and sanitary conveniences, and to make provision, during a working life of from 40 to 45 years, for passing the remainder of his days without the necessity of hard work, when age and years of wear and tear have deteriorated his power to labor.” Up to this standard, not one in twenty working men arrive, in England.

Notwithstanding the common expression specially used by those, who have by fortunate circumstances succeeded, that *every* workingman might accumulate, by being temperate, frugal, saving, industrious and thoughtful in all that pertains to his craft, so as to become an expert therein; and that the working classes, as a whole (the few conceded exceptions being used to show the feasibility of their all achieving *better* results), are frequently charged with improvidence, wastefulness, intemperance, and a general neglect of opportunities for the improvement of their moral and social condition (and that such cases of folly occur, there is no doubt), we do not believe that this is true of them, as a whole, any more than we believe it true of them, as a whole, that they can accumulate ample means by merely avoiding the faults above named. The whole class of them, in fact, may be taken as consisting, like general society, of the thrifty and successful, as one subdivision of the class,—of the unthrifty and improvident as another, and of the great middle class between these extremes,—men of temperate, industrious and moral habits, thoughtful and worthy citizens, who keep at work in their several specialties, yet who,

under existing methods of labor, though saving by all possible economies, do not succeed in achieving a competence. Too apt to consider only the circumstances immediately about us, and to judge all by a few, we fail to generalize, and come to think that the achievement of one man ought to be, and can be, the achievement of all ; and, on the other hand, that the immoralities of one, or of a few of a class, are the characteristics of the whole.

In fact, it is impossible, under the present system of wage-labor, for all, or, indeed, for the many, to be employers and to accumulate a competence ; for this system renders necessary the classes of employers and employed, of rich and poor, just as, in an army, all cannot be Generals or Colonels, for the greater part must be rank and file.

The reader of English history knows, that, at no very remote period, there was a class of laborers as little noticed by chroniclers, as the cattle and sheep they tended ; doing the heaviest work of agriculture by the severest manual toil, unaided by any machinery used in modern times ; yet, probably, not overworked, and so having out of church holidays, many periods of recreation. Housed, clothed, fed, and sustained, in sickness and health, by owners, whose born thralls and manorial vassals they were, and, therefore, with as little responsibility for support of selves and families, as the recent slaves of a modern plantation, it is yet in evidence, that the more thoughtful, diligent, and frugal among them, as among the later slaves, were not without hope for better things for themselves or their posterity.* How these better things were to be brought about, was probably as little known to them, as were the means by which the same good should be effected, known by their toiling equals of the plantations ; or, by the unskilled and low-paid laborers of modern days. For, from the sympathy of their owners, there was not much to be expected, and then, as of late, the wealth-producers were considered as a class of persons only fulfilling the destiny, to which, in " God's providence, they were born,"—of laboring for the benefit of another class, born with the privilege of consuming the produce of such labor. In

* The manumission, by Bishop Swinfield, of one of these churls, Robert Crul, the ancestor of John Kyrle, Pope's " Man of Ross," shows how freedom granted in the 13th century, created a benefactor of the poor in the 18th.

matters of ordinary comfort, the condition even of the highest class, was what we should now consider one of great discomfort. The luxury of that day we should pronounce to be closely akin to wretchedness, and should have small choice between the clay-bed of the villein, and the rush-bed of his master, taking date at about A. D. 1300. Now the villein was supported, but received no money-wage;—that being the token of a higher class of servants. These were lodged, fed and clothed, and received, besides, some small half-yearly wages, say, from 2s. 6d. to 6s. 8d.; sums of money, which, while a rigidly exact scale of present value cannot be laid down, may be considered as equalled by fifteen to twenty times the amount, say, an average of eighteen.* So that servants of such grade received, besides lodging, board and clothes, from 45s. to 120s., or, from \$11.00 to \$29.00, every six months. Blacksmiths, carpenters and masons received about 4d. a day,—its present equivalent being about \$1.25, or \$312 a year of 250 days. Let us, however, select, as recent, very thorough researches † enable us to do, the case of a small freeholder, cultivating, annually, twenty acres of arable land, for which he paid, in rent or service, or both, 10s. (\$2.22), per annum. With well judged cultivation and proper industry, backed by some small capital, he might expect not far from 2½ per cent. ‡ profit; out of which he pays this 10s. as rent. For pasturage of his stock, he could then resort to the waste and unenclosed common lands, or the woods of the manor. Now, under the prevailing laws and enclosure of these lands, he could not do it. Then, he stood, in this advantage, on equal terms with the lord of the manor. Now, the lords of the manor have enclosed and added these lands to their own territories and shut out the laborer's cow. If, in addition to the profit on his own labor and that of his own family, (for our example gives the freeholder with wife and two or three children), some small gains are obtained from labor outside his

* See Roger's "History of Prices in England." In our former Reports, 15 was used as the multiplier. We think 18 would be more exact. In Dr. Whitaker's (Rev. Thos. D., 1816), "Loidis and Elmete," occurs this passage. "A merchant (in 1300), arrested the horse of an Esquire, so that he could not attend upon his Knight. The Knight, for this affront, recovered 100 *shillings* from the merchant, a sum equal to at least 100 *pounds*, at present." From which it appears that even 20 would be required to represent the money of the 14th in that of the 19th century.

† See ditto.

‡ This was in England, where rates range lower than here.

own work, he might easily earn, in harvest time and winter work, say, 20 shillings more; giving a net total of £4, for maintenance and savings, if any. Let us see what the latter might have been. Taking the average price of wheat per quarter of 8 bushels,—at 5s. 10½d., and assuming that 4 quarters* a year, would be consumed by the family, their bread would cost £1 3s. 6d; in which,—as he would probably use his lightest wheat,† may be reasonably included cost of grinding and making into bread. The cost of malt for home brewed beer, (without which few Englishmen think of living), would, on an average of the same year, be 7s. 7d. So that bread and beer cost the family £1 11s. 1d. or \$6.90.

Now, allowing 800 pounds of meat to the family, at an average of one farthing a pound,—the general price at the time,—we have 16s. 8d. Add to this clothing; say, a russet frock, worth 5s.; boots at 2s.; and gaskins,—(or large hose then usually worn),—at 1s. 6d.—the whole being 8s. 6d., which we double, allowing two of each for the family, annually; and considering that much clothing was then (A. D. 1350), homespun-made, we have 17s. a year. These several items give a total of £3 for the maintenance of the family for one year, though on sharp economy. Let us tabulate these figures, and reduce them to their present values in Sterling and Federal moneys;—taking the difference in money value at 18 times, and the pound sterling, at \$4.44, and adding 10s. of land rent to expenses ‡

	Amount.	Present value.	In Federal money, at \$4.44 +
Yearly earnings,	£4 10s. 0d.	£81 0s. 0d.	\$360 00
Deduct,	3 10 0	63 0 0	280 00
Gain per year,	£1 0s. 0d.	£18 0s. 0d.	\$80 00

* We think 4 quarters or 32 bushels too large for a family of four persons; 32 bushels of wheat at 5 bushels (of 60 pounds each), for a barrel of flour, will give 6 2-5 barrels of 195 pounds each, or about 1,254 pounds. Now a barrel of flour will yield 250 loaves of bread of one pound each, and 6 2-5 barrels will yield 1,600 loaves, or 400 loaves for each of four persons a year, being more than a pound loaf for each per day. Generally it is said, that 3 one-pound loaves will suffice for a family of four persons per day.

† A farmer said to us that “too frequently farmers had to sell all that was fit to eat, and eat what is not fit to sell.”

‡ See forward where noticeable coincidences in wage rates are shown between the values of those of 1350 and 1860.

This is a fair exhibit of the receipts and expenditures of the numerous small farmers, the yeomen of England, of the 14th century, prior to the Great Plague of 1350, the middle of the same century. The influence of that calamity in creating a scarcity of labor, was beneficial to the small proprietors and cultivators who survived ; inasmuch as they united, each in his own person, the functions of the small farmer and the hired laborer. And here stand out the advantages of the union of capital and labor in the same individual ; each owner-capitalist being his own paid laborer, working his own or his hired land, on his own account. But this same fearful plague was disastrous to the great land holders ; for the consequent scarcity of laborers at large, and the higher price which they demanded for work, rendered labor the most costly, as it was the most necessary, and even indispensable article in the market. And it is equally plain that the husbandmen of those days accumulated property ; for, previous to the outbreak of 1381, they had subscribed money as a fund for common defence ; or, as the language of the times affirms, for “aggression against their lords.”

This outbreak sprang from the imposition of a new and unusual personal tax of three groats, or 12*d.*—equivalent now to about 18 shillings, or \$4.00,—on each male and female above 15 years of age, to defray the expense of the armaments then employed against France. The consequent mutiny among the people, the farming of the tax to collectors, the gross insult to the young daughter of the blacksmith of an Essex village by one of these publicans, and the dashing out of his brains by the indignant father, the springing to arms of more than a hundred thousand of the Commons, under leaders of their own, with assumed names,—of whom Wat Tyler was a principal,—the requirement by them of a general amnesty, of the abolition of villeinage, (slavery), of the freedom of commerce in all market-towns from taxation,—of the fixing by statute of the rentage of land ; the granting of all these reasonable demands, the breaking up thereupon of the rebellion ; the slaying of Wat Tyler by Walworth,—Mayor of London,—together with the dispersion of Tyler's rude troops by a ruse of King Richard, and his granting them the same civil rights that had been given to their fellows, together with the subsequent, shameless repeal of all these

charters of refranchisement and of pardon by Parliament, the reducing of the people back to slavery, and the punishment of all their ringleaders, are matters well known to readers of English history,* and furnish a notable example of the unsuccessful efforts of the weak and weakly organized, to extort even the justest and clearest rights from the strong and strongly organized.

To return to the above example (p. 475), of the small farmer, we find that he clears, annually, a value equal to \$80.00; a greater sum than that cleared, in 1870, by the journeyman mechanic, instanced in our Second Report—(pp. 437 and 438), and far greater than that cleared by the spinner, on p. 436 of same Report; the mechanic clearing \$59.25 before our civil war, and \$63.06 during the war; and the spinner clearing but \$2.50 per month, or \$30.00 a year.

In this connection, Hallam, in his "History of Europe in the Middle Ages," says, that it is "unpleasant to remark that the laboring classes, especially those engaged in agriculture, were better provided with the means of subsistence in the reign of Edward III.,—(1327–1357) or of Henry VI.,—(1422–1461)—a century later—than they are now," (1840.) Substantiating this is the fact that, in the 14th century, a farm laborer on hire had 24 pence per week, with which he could buy a *comb* or four bushels of wheat; while, in 1784, he had to work a fortnight to earn these 24 pence; and, now, earning 12 shillings a week, (or 2 shillings a working-day,) it will take him $3\frac{1}{3}$ weeks to earn 40 shillings, wherewith to buy 4 bushels; wheat being 80 shillings per quarter of 8 bushels, or 10 shillings a bushel. At 15 shillings a week, which is the price in some parts of England, it would take the wages of 2 weeks and 4 days, to buy these 4 bushels, which one week's earnings would buy, in the older times. So, in the reign of Henry VI., meat being worth, on an average, one and a half farthings a pound, a laborer at his then wages of 18 pence per week, could buy a bushel of wheat at 9 pence the bushel, and 24 pounds of meat, with the remaining 9 pence. A laborer at present earning 12 shillings a week, can buy only a half bushel of wheat, costing 5 shillings, and 12 pounds of meat, at 7 pence per pound, with the remaining 7

* See Hume's Reign of Richard II., and Craik's History of England, Vol. 1, p. 785. Craik calls the father a House-Tiler.

shillings. Mr. Hallam adds, that, after every allowance, he “finds it difficult to resist the conclusion that, however the laborer of the present day is benefited by the cheapness of manufactured commodities, and many inventions of common utility, *he is much inferior in ability to support a family, to his ancestors of three and four centuries ago.*” To this he adds, that, “from the cheapness of cattle as compared with corn, it seems to follow that a more considerable portion of a laborer’s diet consisted of animal food than at present. Of vegetables he had fewer in variety. Beans, peas, onions, cabbages and leeks, were common, but neither potatoes, sweet* or common,† nor turnips,* nor carrots,* nor parsnips, nor any salads, or other uncooked, edible roots. Nor is any mention found of molasses, and but little of sugar—and Froude says, that, “until the time of the interlude of the reign of Edward VI., the working classes were in a condition more than prosperous, enjoying far beyond what falls to the general lot of laborers in long-settled countries, and far beyond those of Germany or France.” Now we know that vast material progress has been made within the past three centuries; but the testimony of history and cotemporary facts cannot be denied; and the testimony of thinking workingmen, themselves, is to the same effect,—that, in this progress, their advance has not been in its just proportion.

It should be mentioned that the permanently hired farm-laborers of the middle ages, (9th to 15th centuries, inclusive,) were generally single men; and that most cautious collector of facts, Arthur Young, in his “Northern Tour”—1771,—says, that the annual cost to a farmer of a first-class laborer, including wage, board and lodging, and all incidental expenses, would amount to £10 8s. 6d., about \$46.33; showing that, while the market prices had risen from eight to twelve hundred per cent., the price of labor had risen but four hundred per cent.;—thus illustrating the ordinary rule, that the prices of articles of consumption normally rise more, in proportion, than the price of labor. So, during our civil war (1861–1865), the average cost of living rose a large percentage above the average price of labor.

Let us now, varying the employment, consider the earnings of mechanics, at about the same period; estimate their purchasing power, and so see, whether or not the artisan laborer

* Introduced in 16th century.

† Introduced in 15th century.

of those days, was better enabled by the pay for his work, to maintain his family, in the manner and custom of the times, than his fellow of the present time. The average yearly earnings of certain mechanics, taking 250 days to represent their working year, were, substantially, as follows—without board:—

TRADES.	Year's Earnings.	Present Value.*	Reduced to our Currency at \$4.44.
Master Carpenter,	£3 15s. 6d.	£67 19s. 0d.	\$302 00
Journeyman Carpenter, . . .	3 3 0	56 14 0	252 00
Master Mason,	4 4 0	75 12 0	336 00
Journeyman Mason,	3 12 11	65 12 6	291 67
House Tiler,	3 3 0	56 14 0	252 00

These wages rose very materially after the plague ; say, from 40 to 50 per cent. It may, perhaps, be said, that 250 days is too liberal an allowance for a year's working days, if all these craftsmens' work were out-of-doors work. But that number is given by practical workmen, whom we have consulted, and is employed by us in our estimates of the purchasing power of earnings here ; the greater hindrance by cold, here, being offset by the greater hindrance by rain, there ; and it being borne in mind that the work of both Carpenters and Masons there and here is both in and out of doors ; and really, no greater reduction would have to be made ; so that under existing prices of clothing and provisions, these mechanics would fare about as well as the farm-laborer ; assuming, as may fairly be done, that it will cost him about the same or but little more, in towns, to support his family.

We have, indeed, as may be seen, allowed for only indispensable articles of maintenance, in all these instances ; nothing being conceded of either time or money, for what would be called sanitary, educational, refining or recreative means. With exception of the positive necessities of the first, and the coarse appliances of the last, on holidays, the workmen of the older days got none of these. The modern workman of America has this advantage, that the institutions of his country afford these,

* Eighteen times as great.

—specially, the educational—and the others are its legitimate results.

In the 16th century, a great rise took place in the price of all articles of consumption, owing to frequency of riots among the people, and to the shameless operation of the government in adulterating the coin. Originally, a pound of silver had been coined into 20 shillings, or 240 pennies. In the reign of Edward IV. it was made to represent 450 pennies, by addition of alloy; but Henry VIII. debased it still more, making 11 oz and 2 dwt. of silver with added alloy, to produce 576 pennies.* Edward VI. carried this infamy still farther, by using only 3 ounces of pure silver, with added base metal, in coining 864 pennies. The consequent confusion and inconvenience were so great, towards the close of the reign of this monarch, that, during the reigns of Mary and Elizabeth, the evil had to be gradually remedied, the alloy being reduced to 18 dwt., as it was in 1066, the date of the Conquest, and as it has since continued to be. The number of shillings, however, struck out of a pound of silver, was not lessened. On the contrary, it was increased from 60, as it had been till 1601, to 62, and in 1816, it was further increased to its present number of 66.†

With regard to wheat, its price, in these centuries, is not an exact criterion of the ability of man to subsist by his labor, since it did not form a part of his usual food; because its price, as compared with the wage of his work, put it out of his power to buy it. For instance, in 1595 and in 1682, when a quarter (8 bushels) of wheat was worth £2, the wages of unskilled laborers were only from 4*d.* and 8*d.* a day, so that it would take them 60 and 120 days, to earn enough to buy that amount.

Their ordinary bread was of barley or rye;—wheaten bread coming into use long afterwards. In fact, so little was the quantity of wheat in the market, as late as 1747, that it was only rich families that consumed a peck, a year, and that was at Christmas. It came into greater use much later in the century.

* Latimer preaching before the King, used "some merry word of the new shilling,"—for which he was accused of sedition. He said "we have a pretty new shilling, one of which I had in my purse and could put it away for almost a groat, (4*d.*) The fineness of the silver I cannot see, but there is a fine sentence on it (in Latine) 'The fear of the Lord is the fountain of wisdom!'"

† Craik's Pictorial History of England—Vol. 2, p. 798.

The examples we have recorded on the preceding pages are applicable to the 14th and a part of the 15th centuries ; say, as far down as 1450 ; when both the price of provisions, cost of living, and wages, rose,—but the latter gained no greater purchasing power. Yet, though no better off in means of living, or power of purchase, the people had, in the insurrection of Wat Tyler (1379), taught the ruling classes some lessons of popular strength, and that it was not wise wholly to disregard the instruction.

Their efforts for release from villenage, efforts which parallel the strikes of modern days, and which, like them, had many features lacking prudence and sound policy, but which, like them also, were about the only resort which seemed to harbiner relief, could not fail to make some impression of what the popular strength might attempt, and to create some unwillingness to provoke any renewal of them. Seventy years afterwards, (1450) the strike, or as it was commonly called, the rebellion of Jack Cade,* unsuccessful as it was, unquestionably helped to carry the people towards a more just position, as part of the body politic. Convulsions, like these, shake society to its base, but may do for the elevation of the many what centuries of waiting might not accomplish. Men seldom relinquish power voluntarily, and are not often persuaded to “sell what they have and give to the poor.”

And it is not unworthy of note, that, in the subsequent wars of the Roses (1453–1486) the interests of the two contestants operated to raise the commons to an importance they never before possessed. For, differing from wars between foreign nations, the very people of England was the prize in the struggle between the rival claimants for the throne, and from the commons of this very people were to be obtained the soldiers to carry on the fight, so that it would not have been advisable to carry much devastation into the ranks of either opponent, as the men for York to-day, might be the men for Lancaster to-morrow. As for the people themselves, they took little interest in the contest, for it mattered very little with them under which baron, as king, they should live and serve and suffer, after the fight was ended.

* In Shakspeare's dramatizing of this movement, (Henry VI.) as in many others of his plays, are all the elements of intense hero-worship, and contempt of the people.

In 1496, the famous statute of wages for agricultural laborers and for mechanics was enacted, with penalty of imprisonment of any one who refused to work at the prices prescribed ; and these wages underwent no material alteration, although the prices of provisions advanced very considerably, up to 1520.

Of the relative comfort, manner of living and general status of the working classes, in different periods, it is, with all the research that may be made, a very difficult thing to form an exact estimate. The purchasing power of their earnings, to be sure, gives very great assistance ; but we may know all this, and know how much may be expended in food, and how much in dress, and yet know nothing of their household surroundings or interior life. In 1496, the food of a mechanic with an average family, cost one-third of his income, and the food of a laborer cost one-half of his. In 1835, in England, the board of laborers and artificers would have been reckoned at a much higher proportion of their wages, and they would not therefore be so well off as their fellows of 1496. Yet, by a singular coincidence, in Massachusetts, in 1870, the cost of the food of the family of a factory-spinner, consisting of four persons, was one-half of his income, and that of a mechanic, with an equal family, was one-third of his. But comparing the amount of time allowed to the workman of 1496, for meals and relaxation, including the church holidays, England then being Catholic, he was more favored than either of the other two. Was he more favored with the comforts of life ?

Before this question can be properly answered, we must first understand how each of the parties would interpret the word comfort. Ask the workman of the 14th century, what he deemed household and other comforts to be, and he would probably reply, that, with a weather-tight cottage—of two or three rooms ; with fresh rushes on the floor of one of them—once a month ; with meat, beer and cabbage every day ; a chance on the common (then not enclosed), for cow, pig and poultry ; with 30*d.* a year for clothes of each of his family of four persons, and a chance, now and then, to see a bear-baiting or a cock-fight, or a game of quarter-staff, or at the butts, or at the Christmas mummeries, and he would be very comfortable indeed.

His sole idea of life was that of animal life and the supply of

animal necessities. Neither reader, writer nor thinker,—receiving no instruction from school or lecture,—he had no idea of intellectual culture, nor the better provision for both body and mind that such culture quickens into life. With days of drudging labor, evenings of listless doze, nights of dulled sleep upon clayed floor or straw,—under statute rigidly prescribing wages, hours of work, cost and style of dress and diet, food coarse, and clothing scant; with imprisonment for non-conformity to sumptuary law, the child succeeding to the craft of the father, without hope or even thought of rising above it,—hereditary children of unchanging caste,—these “rude forefathers” lived and labored, and dying, left the same dreary routine to children, who transmitted it, as legacy, to theirs. And this condition of things—relic of feudalism—is not yet quite extinct in England; many of her better conditioned people, as Mr. Olmsted * says, “daring to think, that, in the mysterious decrees of Providence, this balance of degradation and supine misery is essential to the continuance of the greatness, prosperity and elevated character of the country.”

But the school-taught, thoughtful, American workmen, of the 19th century, could not, would not, and should not consider himself and his family in a state of comfort, under such surroundings. The times call for better things; the increased cost of rent, food and raiment calls for better earnings; the refinement of the age, education, culture, and advanced civilization call for more time for their attainment; the best good and the permanence of the republic demand a higher breed of men; and the consent of the times, urged on by true policy and far-seeing patriotism, must and will certainly yield, nay, is yielding, to these various calls; for, we feel that the truth will one day be believed, that you cannot get the profitable work which the advance of the world will demand, from an enfeebled people, any more than you can get rich crops from an exhausted soil.

Towards the close of the 15th century, it would seem that the purchasing power of wages had somewhat strengthened, and so, taking some further step down the line of time, let us consider the period of about the middle to the end of the 16th century. Here an examination of all varieties of labor-wages,

* Olmsted's “American Farmer in England.”

shows, that although, in the interval, there had been great fluctuations, the money-wages of almost all kinds of labor had nearly or quite doubled in amount. And, in addition to this it further appears, that the price of provisions, though subject also to similar and great variations, had advanced at an equal rate. Wheat had varied from 3*s.* 4*d.* the quarter (8 bushels), to £5 4*s.* (!), its average for 115 years having been about £1 6*s.* The same advance had taken place in nearly everything else,—both clothing and ordinary articles in common use. In Stafford's "Dialogues," (1581), the several speakers all agree to this rise. A Capmaker says, "I am fain* to give my journeymen 2*d.* a day, more than I was used to do, and yet they say they cannot live sufficiently thereon." "Yes," replies a Knight, "and such of us as do abide in the country, still cannot keep that house, with two hundred pound a year that we might have kept some years ago, with two hundred marks," (67 per cent. less.) Their further conversation shows an advance of a hundred per cent. in all articles, grain, meat, clothing, keeping house, horse, and servants. But, as Prof. Craik justly observes, and what is applicable to all times, "that which is more than anything else, the barometer of the condition of the laboring classes, or great body of the population, is the heaving of the mass of utter destitution which lies below all labor,"—and, it may be safely added, crops up and mingles in with the masses whose only support is in their own unskilled and often unemployed labor. This was remarked in reference to the pauperism and mendicancy that is said to have grown out of the abolition of the monasteries by Henry VIII.,—though the argument is not without force, that the great men of the day, who, traveling with their large retinues, made hotels of these sanctuaries, keeping high revelry with the monks as their hosts, and extorting plentiful largess of money and provision at their departure, did as much towards impoverishing them, as the tramping beggars whom they fed and so encouraged in their vagabondizing. Feeding vagrant beggars makes beggary infectious, and indiscriminate almsgiving is not judicious charity.

Mr. John Wade† in his "History of the Middle and Working Classes," says that, in 1495, a laborer could purchase, with his

* Glad to do it rather than do worse.

† Quoting from Barton's "Growing Excess of Population," London, 1830.

wages of 48*d.* a week 199 pints of wheat; in 1593, with his wages of 48*d.* a week he could purchase only 82 pints, and in 1610 with his 12*d.* a week, only 46 pints. Wages had gone down and wheat gone up. As given by other authorities, it stands thus: a laborer in 1495 earned 48*d.* a week, and wheat cost 6*d.* a bushel, so that he bought 8 bushels with his weekly wages;—in 1593, he earned 60*d.* a week, and wheat cost 30*d.* a bushel, and he buys 2 bushels with his weekly wages;—in 1610, his weekly wages fell by statute to 12*d.*, wheat was worth 51*d.* a bushel, and he buys about a quarter of a bushel with his weekly wages. So that, within 17 years, the purchasing power of his wage, in the matter of wheat, had diminished in the ratio of 8 to 1 by the latter figures; and Mr. Wade says that he could only obtain one-fourth part of the necessities and conveniences in 1610, that he could in 1593. A vast increase of indigent misery, with its ordinary concomitant of crime, followed this state of things; and the increasing privations of the people were aggravated by pestilences, between 1603 and 1665, destroying both capital and industry, and retarding the progress of the country for more than a century. Mr. Barton further remarks that the present (1830) condition of England resembles that which marked the close of the reign of Elizabeth, 1603;—both periods exhibiting symptoms of the population having outgrown the existing means of employment and subsistence. In both, there was a diminution in the rate of wages, and therefore, in the means of procuring, by the body of the people, a sufficiency of wholesome food, needful clothing, good lodging, and the other necessities of life. The high price of meat put it beyond the purchasing power of laborers earning from 6*d.* to 10*d.* a day; and even master-workmen could indulge in it but occasionally. Many of the esculent vegetables of later days were unknown, and tea and sugar, now so much used in workmens' families, were of great rarity and cost. The yearly earnings of the best farm-laborers, at 1,380 pence, (\$25.55) and of the best artisans, at 3,600 pence, (\$66.67) compelled the sharpest economy, and demanded the added earnings of all the members of the household, to keep them along, even in the poor fashion in which they lived.

Crowding a good deal into a small space, it may be said, that the war of the Roses (1453–1486,) ruined the feudal aristoc-

racy of England; the crown became despotic and created a new nobility; the masses of the people were losers by the Reformation, recovering themselves somewhat, in the 17th century, having a golden age in the first half of the eighteenth, but now in the 19th depressed, the peasant having gone back to the serfdom of villeinage, while the yeoman has disappeared before the absorption of land by great proprietors, and before the enormous increase of the manufacturing interests of the kingdom.

Let us now move down to the year 1688; and taking up Gregory King's Scheme, or Table of "Incomes of Families in England," with the ruling prices of commodities for that period, see what the results would indicate. Here we find that artisans and handicraftsmen, each with an average family of four persons, and all earning something, get about £38 a year, or \$169 00, (pound at \$4.44). Now with meat; (beef and mutton), at an average price of 2 pence per pound, each person in each of these families could afford to consume, say, half a pound, a day, or 730 pounds a year, costing £6 1s. 8d. or \$27.04, about one-sixth of the income, and leaving \$142.00 for expense of rent, bread, fuel, clothing, education, and incidentals. The difference in the value of money as compared with the 19th century, would more than double these sums, and we have taken par as the value of exchange.

Taking from the same table the class of tradesmen and shopkeepers, each with an average family of $4\frac{1}{2}$ persons, and an income of £45, a year, or \$200.00, each family could consume meat, at the same allowance per person, and costing £6 16s. 10d. or \$30.42 a year, a little over one-sixth of its income, and have \$169.58 left for the other expenses.

Take now another class, that of the farmers, each with an average family of 5 persons,* and an income of £42 10s. a year, or \$188.89. Each family here could consume meat, at the same allowance, costing £7 12s. 1d. or \$33.80 a year, less than one-sixth of his income, and have \$155.09, for other expenses. But, take another class,—that of laboring people generally,—averaging each family as low as $3\frac{1}{2}$ persons, and with an income of only £15, per year, or \$66.67. Were each member of the family to consume meat of equal price, and at the same allowance, it would cost £5 6s. 6d. or \$23.67, a year; being something

* The families of the poor generally average higher than those of the middle or rich classes.

over one-third of its income, and leaving \$43.00 for its other expenses. Clearly, they could not afford so much meat, if any at all. But much worse is the case of the cottagers, each with an average family of $3\frac{1}{4}$ persons, and an income of only £6 10s. or \$28.89. Clearly, there is here no power to purchase meat; and, tied down to a particular employment by the crystallized customs of an old country, there was small chance of bettering matters by change of employment. Even artisans and tradesmen were as closely limited to their occupations. The power to rise above a hereditary business is strong only in new and free countries, where the influence of education more generally qualifies men to cope with all the possibilities of life, and renders them independent of old forms and traditionary methods. But of education in its full import, there was nothing at the opening of the eighteenth century, and next to nothing for more than a century later. In fact, it is only within a very recent period, that England has awaked to the educational necessities of her common people, and set herself earnestly at work. London, at the time spoken of, and other great cities, swarmed with destitute children sleeping in ash-holes, and in every conceivable place of discomfort and exposure, and left to starvation, or thieving, and ripening for the gallows or Botany Bay.* And of this moral horror there is yet a good deal left there, and it is not wanting here.

According to computations made by Arthur Young,† the 15th century, (1400–1500), and the 18th, (1700–1800), were the periods according to accredited history of wages and prices, during which a given amount of labor would command the greatest amount of food;—that is, earnings had the greatest purchasing power. In the 15th, the average price of wheat was 1s. 6d. (33c.) a bushel,—carpenters and masons earned an

* “In one of my riverside districts, I had established a school, into which I tried to entice the little mudlarks of the neighborhood—and the first insight I got into the miseries of their life, I obtained from three of these. They were in the habit of picking up a few pounds of coal which they sold for a penny. One of them said ‘we sleep aboard of hempty barges, or under a boat, if its ‘andy. There’s the pipes too; they aint so bad, if you git one as the wind can’t cut thro’ it, and then there’s the harches, they’d be unkimmon snug, if they wasn’t so mucky and so full of rats.’ I afterwards saw the regular lodgings of the three; they had no parents. It was a triangular cupboard, without a door, boarded off from the filthy landing at top of a filthy stairway. A mat and an ironing blanket, full of holes, were all the furniture.”—*Episodes of an Obscure Life*.

[For further matter of the same sort, see “Ginx’s Baby.”]

† Young’s “Northern Tour.”

average of 3*s.* (67*c.*) a week, and farm laborers an average of 2*s.* 6*d.* (55*c.*) In the 18th, the average price of a bushel of wheat was 7*s.* 2*d.* (\$1.60). Carpenters and masons earned an average of 15*s.* (\$3.33) to 16*s.* 6*d.* (\$3.67) a week, and farm laborers an average of 7*s.* 6*d.* (\$1.67). This shows that, comparing the two centuries together, wheat had risen, in the 18th, nearly five times its value in the 15th,—the wages of carpenters and masons about the same, but those of farm laborers three times only. But in the 15th century, meat was certainly cheap; mutton being worth not more than a farthing a pound, and beef but a little dearer, while butter and cheese were worth twice as much. Yet meat was dearer than wheat;* for 6 pounds of meat would cost 6 farthings, and 6 pounds of flour but 4 farthings. Now the carpenter, with his earnings of 144 farthings a week, (3*s.*), and having an average family of 4 persons, could certainly afford half-a-pound of meat to each, per day, or 14 pounds per week; for it would cost him only 14 farthings, or about $\frac{1}{10}$ of his weekly earnings, leaving 130 farthings for other necessities; and the farmer with his 2*s.* 6*d.* a week, could afford the same amount for his family of the same number, taking hardly $\frac{1}{9}$ of his income and having 106 farthings left. But it is reasonable to suppose that the members of these families, specially those of the laborer, would add something to the income of the father *at 250 days to the year*, and so help to make matters a little more favorable.

During the 18th century, (1700 to 1800), the daily and weekly average earnings and the average prices of certain articles of consumption, were as follows:—†

TRADES.	Per day.	Per week.	Prices.
Carpenters, .	30 <i>d.</i> = 55 cts.	180 <i>d.</i> = \$3 30	Beef, 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ <i>d.</i> = 5 cts.
Masons, .	33 = 61 “	198 = 3 67	Pork, 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ = 6 “
Bricklayers, .	29 = 53 “	174 = 3 18	Butter, 5 $\frac{8}{10}$ = 11 “
Plumbers, .	35 = 64 “	210 = 3 84	Cheese, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ = 7 “

Now, allowing 42 working weeks, of 6 days each, to the year,

* A bushel of wheat weighs 60 pounds.

† Wheat was at an average of £2 1*s.* 9*d.*—\$9.27 for a quarter of 8 bushels—\$1.16 a bushel.

and an average family of $4\frac{1}{2}$ persons, with half a pound of meat to each, per day, the family consumption, per week of 7 days, would be $15\frac{3}{4}$ pounds, costing at $2\frac{1}{2}d.$, average, $39\frac{3}{8}d.$ And, allowing 26 bushels of wheat, per year, or half a bushel a week, which would yield each person over $\frac{3}{4}$ of a loaf of bread, per day,* which half bushel of wheat, at $63d.$ a bushel, will cost $31\frac{1}{2}d.$, their meat and bread would cost about 71 pence, leaving more than 100 pence, per week, to the lowest ($174d.$), above named, for other supplies. But it must not be forgotten that this class of mechanics is not employed the whole working year of 310 days. Two-thirds of a year or 252 days, would, probably, be a fair allowance. So that, while their expenses are distributed over the whole year, of 365 days, their earnings are obtained in nearly one-third less than a year. Bringing this fact to bear, the earnings of the bricklayer, for 252 days, at $29d.$ a day, would amount to £30 9s.—\$135.33, and his expense for meat and flour, at $71d.$ a week, would amount to £15 7s. 8d.—\$68.38; leaving less than \$67 for other necessary supplies for the year. Similar computations may be made for the others.

Now take the case of Agricultural laborers.† Sir F. M. Eden gives the actual cases of 66 families, in 1792 to 1796, in different parts of England, having an average number of $5\frac{3}{4}$ persons to a family, each member contributing something to the general stock, but each family earning, per week, an average of only 11s. 4d. equal to £29 9s. 4d. or \$130.96 a year. Their average annual expenses are £36 14s. 3d. or \$163.17; these expenses are for rent, food, clothing, fuel, sickness and the merest necessities; the only meat mentioned, is bacon, used on Sundays; the highest amount expended for which, in any family, being 3s. 4d. or 75 cents,—in a certain week,—and so down to nothing. A little tea, sugar, and butter seem to have been used. Clothing varied much in cost, from £8 13s.—\$38.45, to 10s. 6d.—\$2.33, but all poor and scant. Taking the families singly, 54 of the 66 ran in debt, every year, and 12 saved only a little, by help and extra work and forecast. The highest amount charged to beer, is 1s, or 22 cents, a week, and from that, down to nothing; 39 of the families using it, and 27 not using it.

We find some individual instances, on record, interesting and

* At the rate of 5 bushels of wheat to yield $2\frac{1}{4}$ bushels, or a barrel of flour, of 196 pounds, which will yield 250 one-pound loaves.

† See Appendix.

instructive on this matter of earnings and expenses. The following are those of a gardener, in the Parish of Epsom, in Surrey, England. They were taken in 1796. He got his living by taking care of three gardens ; finding all seeds, and doing all necessary work, in the three, for £56—say, about \$248.89. Out of this he paid enough, for seed and extra labor, to reduce the amount about £10, or \$44.44, which loss, however, he about got back by extra jobs, and by fees as church sexton. The author, quoted from, proceeds to give all the items, in exact detail, of the man’s annual expenses for living ;—rent, food, clothing, groceries, medicine, &c., &c., amounting to \$333.33, or \$88.44 more than his income. He is described as a sober, industrious, quiet man, and a member of a Friendly Society ;—of the age of 35 years, with a wife and 8 children, and one in prospect. Other and similar instances are given by the same writer. He also gives, with the same exactness, the statistics of income and the cost of living of seven different families, in the town of Kendall, in Westmoreland. We append them here. The father, mother, and some of the children, in each family, contributed to the income. The cost is given, *exclusive of clothing*, in order to show how much of the income would be left, after all other expenses were paid,—to pay for the clothing, and other necessaries with incidentals. The reduction to our currency has been made at the rate of \$1.44 to the pound :—

FAMILIES.					No. in Each.	Income.	Expenditure.	Clothing, &c.
No. 1,	5	\$206 07	\$188 82	\$17 25
2,	9	236 89	220 23	16 66
3,	5	130 00	124 56	5 44
4,	9	163 63	148 01	15 62
5,	7	252 45	218 38	34 07
6,	7	173 33	159 93	13 40
7,	5	133 11	119 34	13 77

Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4 were families of Weavers ; No. 5, of a Mason ; Nos. 6 and 7, of Agricultural laborers. The statistics were also taken in 1796.

Should it be asked why some of these saved and some did not, the answer is found in the varying natural character of the

parties, in relative size of families, in sickness, in regularity of employment or otherwise, and with some, in the rigid denial of food and clothing, at the risk of health. In some of the debt-cases, births and burials both increased expenses. It is pretty certain that those who live from hand to mouth merely, whose employment also varies from causes beyond their control, and who are always anxious about "a job," are not prone to a system of rigid self-denial and economy, when work is abundant. The very denial necessary when there is no work, inclines to indulgence when there is work; and a father who has seen his family enduring want, can hardly be expected to deny the few small favors which only the best of times places within his reach; and it is pretty hard when those whose favorable circumstances place them above all anxiety, reproach their opposites with want of thrift;—they being really little competent to estimate the amount of virtue implied in the self-denial of the poor.

We now come to the opening of the nineteenth century. In its progress, great changes have taken place, in occupations, in relative wealth and poverty, in land-possession, in wages, earnings and their purchasing power, and in cost and manner of living. The very abundance of the data, (heretofore increasingly meagre as you go back in time), is embarrassing, and brevity, though desirable, is secured only at cost of accuracy and satisfactory detail. We will endeavor to present a fair mean between the extremes.

Exemplifying the fact of change of occupation, we find that from 1800 to 1811, out of every 100 families, (omitting decimals), 35 were engaged in agriculture, 46 in trade and manufactures, and 19 in other employments; while, in 1831, out of every 100 families, 28 were employed in agriculture, 42 in trade and manufactures, 30 in other employments,—the producers of food *decreasing* and the consumers *increasing*. In 1841, this change had continued, so that only 26 per cent. were engaged in agriculture, 44, in trade and manufactures, and 30 in other employments;—the producers still *decreasing*, and the consumers *increasing*. And the very serious question arose, as to how long this process could continue, and yet the country yield food enough for its inhabitants. It is true that a portion of this decrease is due to the introduction of agricultural machinery; but

not all, by any means, for the great increase of population, notwithstanding emigration, would have more than balanced all this. In 1866, agriculture takes 18 per cent., trade and manufactures take 43 per cent., and other employments 39 per cent. ; as nearly as they can be ascertained ; a further decrease of the food-producing employment. Now as the tendency is always to those classes of employment wherein manual labor is least, and wherein money is most easily acquired, it would seem that there being too much hard work and too little yield of money in tilling the soil,—agriculture is forsaken for more lucrative and less fatiguing employments. In fact, England, like her industrial copyist, Massachusetts, is gradually ceasing to be an agricultural, and rapidly becoming a manufacturing people—and her soil is not therefore increasing in its yield so as to supply the constant augmentation of its population. Now what are the earnings of her agricultural people and the purchasing power thereof? It is conceded that there has been a rise of their wages. In 1824, they were 9s. 4d., or \$2.26 a week ;* in 1866, they were 13 shillings or \$3.15 ;—and, if the earnings of wife and children be added, the family may realize 23 shillings, or \$5.57 a week. What will support the average family of such laborers? Dr. Edward Smith, Medical Officer of the Privy Council, in his Report for 1866, puts the total—rent, clothing, food,—*without meat*, at 16 shillings or \$3.88 a week. Let us see how the account would stand :—

Annual earnings, at \$5.57 a week (52 weeks),	. \$289 64
expenses, (without meat) at \$3.88 a week, .	201 76
<hr/>	
Leaving for meat and all incidental expenses, .	. \$87 88

Now, in 1866, the average price of meat was 17 cents a pound. If \$87.88 were all spent for meat, at that price, it would buy 517 pounds. Now the average family of an agricultural laborer is put, by Dr. Smith, as high as 5 $\frac{3}{4}$. Taking only 5, and this meat would be about 103 pounds for each one, per year ;—or, about $\frac{3}{10}$ of a pound, per day. Reducing the family to only 4, each one would get but about $\frac{1}{3}$ of a pound per day. But then there would be nothing left for

* The £ sterling at \$4.84.

anything else;—and so it is plain that this class of laborers cannot have meat every day. In fact, these laborers are compelled to live on cheap and innutritious food, and are worse off than the same class in Ireland, where meat is cheaper, and where, for the same money, twice as much carbon, and more than twice as much nitrogen, can be procured. And yet these men need the most sustaining food to keep them in condition adequate to their hard work. No wonder the breed is losing in productive strength,—and that, as the historian Froude declares, “they are fast degenerating in physical ability.”

Let us now look at the purchasing power of wages in other classes, and let us take the men severally engaged in the building trades. Their days of labor vary with the season and the weather,—and their weekly hours of labor range from 45 to 58; say, from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to $9\frac{2}{3}$ a day, the average being about 9. Their pay is by the hour, and at an average of 7d, or 14 cents; say, \$1.26 a day, \$7.56 a week; being \$317.52 a working year of 42 weeks. How will its purchasing power place him? We will give statements and figures derived from Mr. Leone Levi's work on “Earnings of Working Classes”—published in London, in 1867; a work of immense interest and utility, the result of equally immense labor and research. It was the record of a wide and methodical research into the earnings of the wealth-producing classes of the United Kingdom, based on the population given in the decennial census of 1861, and showing a working class of over eleven millions in a population of twenty-one and a quarter millions. The aggregated annual earnings of this vast industrial army, which, estimated in round numbers by Mr. Gladstone, in a speech in 1861, he put at 250 million pounds, or upward of 12 billion dollars, was found to be more than 418 million pounds, or upward of 20 billion dollars,—reckoning the £ sterling at \$4.84,* putting exchange at nine per cent. advance.

On p. xix, of his valuable work, Mr. L., in adverting to “Strikes,” says, “*I am not against shortening the hours of labor. The Factory Regulations (of England) in this respect, have INCREASED not DIMINISHED production.*”

He says that the expenditures of workingmen may be divided into four classes,—viz.: 1st, Food; 2d, House-rent, fire and

* Leone Levi on “Earnings of Working Classes, &c.”

lights ; 3d, Clothing ; and 4th, Health, recreation and education.* Of his earnings, from one-half to two-thirds are expended in food—leaving the rest to the other three. In 1865, Carpenters, Masons, Bricklayers and Plumbers earned, on an average, \$1.25 a day—say, at 252 working days to the year, \$315.00. Of this, there would be consumed, in Rent, &c., at least \$50.00 ; Food, in a family of 4 persons, \$193.75, or nearly 62 per cent. of his income ; tax, \$5.00—leaving \$116.25 for clothing, and the items of education, health, recreation, and all incidentals, including sickness—and omitting wear and tear of tools, &c., &c. Now, it is plain, that the purchasing power of his earnings cannot give him command over much more than a mere living, with pretty sharp denial at that. And yet so fearfully is the vice of drinking prevalent, that of \$431,000,000 spent in England, for drink, \$288,000,000, or nearly 67 per cent., two-thirds, are spent by her laboring classes alone ! Mr. Levi adds, “ that long hours of labor, complete exhaustion of forces, irregular employment, sorrows and disappointments lead to this excessive drinking, and once victimized, the health and vigor of the workman are gone.”

An English Spinner, now working in this country, and who has been a Factory operative all his life, gives the following, as the earnings and cost of living, in 1870, of a Spinner and Weaver in England, each with 4 persons in the family. We have reduced the Sterling to Federal money, at \$4.84 the pound. The Spinner earns about \$320.00 a year. The Weaver of four looms, \$264.16.

The weavers usually run four looms without a helper, and six, with a helper ; but nearly all the extra earnings with the six are required to pay the helper—though he is usually a child of the weaver.

The cost of living of each he gives as follows :—

Rent,	\$31	20
Coal,	10	50
Food of all sorts, meats and groceries,	176	80
Clothing, including Boots, Shoes and Hats,	53	29
										<hr/>	
										\$271	79

* This was in 1866. Now (1871) free schools relieve him from expense of tuition.

Leaving the Spinner \$48.21, to pay all other expenses, and leaving the Weaver \$7.63 in debt, unless his income be aided by work of his wife and children.

An English weaver sends us the following schedule of his yearly earnings and expenses in 1871. He worked 51 weeks and earned, per week, £1 1s. or \$5.08, per week. Or thus: \$5.08 for 51 weeks=\$259.08. His expenses amounted to \$275.45, leaving him in debt at the end of the year \$16.37.

The following were the principal articles of consumption used in any one week:—

16 lbs. oatmeal, . . .	\$0 64	Being for a year, . .	\$175 24
14 qts. old milk, . . .	28	Add coal, . . .	12 59
5 lbs. meat, . . .	60	“ clothing, . . .	38 76
3 lbs. molasses,* . . .	15	“ furniture, . . .	6 05
Coffee,	09	“ bedding, . . .	6 05
Tea,	09	“ rent, . . .	26 29
4 lbs. sugar, . . .	36	“ taxes, . . .	3 63
20 lbs. flour, . . .	80		
Vegetables,	12		\$268 61
Potatoes,	24	Incidentals, . . .	6 84
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	\$3 37		\$275 45

The following figures exhibit the earnings and expenses of the general run of carpenters, masons, bricklayers, and painters, in England, taken in 1871,—out of London:—

Their work employs but about 250 days of the year. Their daily earnings are about \$1.13—taking the pound sterling at \$4.84. Under the above time and wages, the year's earnings would be \$282.50. For rent, clothing, food, furniture and taxes, he would expend \$319.49; and would therefore be \$36.99 in debt.

It is quite plain that a carpenter cannot keep his family of 4 persons, any more cheaply than a factory operative; and although the carpenter receives more, per diem, than the weaver or spinner, yet at the end of the year, he has not received as much wages as the spinner. The reason of this is plain; the carpenter losses from 2 to 3 months' work in the year, from cold and rain; while the spinner is employed for about 51 weeks,

* Sold by weight.

every year. The expenses of the carpenter are a little higher than those of the factory operative. He generally hires a better house, dresses and lives better, and, consequently, we find at the end of the year, if he is left to his own income only, his earnings of 250 days, leave him in debt.

These records may be relied on as correct; the information having been gathered from persons recently from England.

We are also able to present some figures recently given to the public by an intelligent English working man, in the columns of an English newspaper, converting the money into our own currency, at \$4.84 per pound sterling. He gives £1 10s. or \$7.26 as the fair average weekly earnings of the working men of his class, that being \$377.52 for the year, and out of this he endeavors to provide for a family of 6 persons—parents and 4 children, as per the following table, for a week:—

Rent, for two rooms, . . .	\$0 98	<i>Brought up</i> , . . .	\$5 68
Bread and flour, . . .	1 30	Children's schooling, . . .	30
Meat and suet, . . .	1 22	Sick club, . . .	18
Butter and cheese, . . .	64	Beer for man at work, . . .	24
Tea, sugar and milk, . . .	56	“ at supper, . . .	28
Vegetables, . . .	48	Tobacco, . . .	06
Coal and wood, . . .	32	Newsman, . . .	02
Candles, soap, &c., . . .	18	To the children, . . .	04
<hr/>		<hr/>	
<i>Carried up</i> , . . .	\$5 68	Total, . . .	\$6 80

This would leave him \$0.46 a week, say \$23.92, a year, where-with to pay for clothing, sickness, if it comes, and all the incidental expenses of his family. He adds “that he has reared a family in London, and always found it difficult to produce, with his earnings, the necessaries requisite for their comfort.” He considers, also, “that the wages paid in London to the working class, are generally better than those paid in any town in the kingdom.”

Another London workman, of a lower class, in the same paper, says, that common “laboring men” (as he knows them), “in London, get, as their standing wages, 18s. or \$4.36 a week; and yet there are hundreds and thousands who get but from \$3.63 to \$4.00 a week”; and adds “that it is mockery to expect

men to be provident under such pay. Husband and wife, after a day's work, return to a cold, cheerless, uncomfortable home. The children, left for the day with some neighbor, are fed on a few scraps, put to bed, and then both parents repair to a well-warmed tap-room to get warmth and a *little comfort*, not to be found in their own chilly room." "Give us a fair chance for a decent home, fresh air and good water, and you will not only help us, but help society through us." The man reasons well. It is equivalent to his saying, "Make us happy and you will make us virtuous." The following is his schedule of daily and weekly expenses for himself, wife and one child:—

Bread,	per day, \$0 14; per week, \$0 98
Beer,	" 04; " 28
Meat and potatoes, . .	" 12; " 84
Butter and cheese, . .	" 05; " 35
Tea and milk,	" 04; " 28
Candles and fuel, . .	" 02; " 14
Coals,	" 02; " 14
Clothes and shoes, . .	" 08; " 56
Rent,	" 07; " 49
Soap, &c.,	" 04; " 28
	<hr/>
	\$0 62; \$4 34

thus consuming, on these sparse supplies and a maximum of self-denial, all he earns. When we read that the landlords of some of these poor people kindly provided, at their own cost, a missionary and a physician, but that they (the landlords), neither "ventilated the rooms nor enlarged the yard-premises," where, as in "Cow Cross," the Earl of Shaftesbury said, in the House of Lords, he found 173 houses with 586 rooms, and 3,754 persons, being $6\frac{1}{2}$ persons to a room, dwelling therein, we thought that ventilation and cleansing—Æolus with his fresh breezes, and Hercules with the river-flood wherewith he purged the Augean Stables,—would have been better than either medicine or preaching.

Let us see whether other authorities will confirm these wage-statements. It is stated that, in very many cases, wages are paid on work by the hour;—and that the hours of labor vary

in different parts of the kingdom, and that $56\frac{1}{2}$ may be taken as a fair average—the pay being 14 cents an hour—in the building trades. Taking then 42 weeks, or 252 working days for the year, we shall have 2,373 hours, which, at 14 cents, will give a year's earnings of \$332.22. What will this accomplish in the maintenance of a family of 4 persons? On the authority of Dr. Edward Smith, Medical Officer of the Privy Council, the consumption of food of such a family would be \$3.70 a week, being \$192.40 for the year; leaving \$139.82 for rent, clothing and all other expenses. The general average of rent is \$34.00; and this deducted from \$139.82, leaves \$105.82. Clothing is cheaper than in the United States; but, reducing it 50 per cent., and allowing \$20 per year, for each person here, it would require \$40 to clothe the English family reducing his income to \$65.82 to meet every other possible demand for fuel, light, sickness, taxes and rates, recreation, education, religious and charitable purposes, &c., &c. Clearly, there can be no savings; and if poverty leads to intemperance, it is not much wonder that English laborers strive to forget their cheerless lot, in drink that kills both thought and memory.

It will be seen that the hours of labor are fewer than in the United States, and, further, that many work by the hour. An inattentive reader of their history might ask, "Why do they not work more hours and so earn more?" The answer is found in the fact that they have discovered that wages are not paid in proportion to the hours of labor, but that the reverse is true. So, with them, there is a constant effort to reduce the hours of working time. And in this, they are supported by Ward in his "Workmen and Wages"—page 224; where we find the following table:—

Y E A R.	Weekly net Earnings.	Pounds of Flour these would Purchase.	Pounds of Flesh Meat these would Purchase.	Hours of Labor.
1804, . . .	32s. 6d.	147	62	74
1833, . . .	42 9	267	85	69
1850, . . .	40 0	320	85	60

"We have here the indisputable DATA, showing that a gradual rise of wages has been concurrent with a gradual reduction of

the hours of labor, and a gradual but decided fall in the price of food.”

By documents received from England, it appears that, in 1869, the average weekly earnings of Carpenters and Bricklayers, at $56\frac{1}{2}$ hours, per week, was 30s. $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ or \$7.28, and allowing 42 weeks of the year for work, the year's earnings would amount to \$305.76—the pound being \$4.84. This would be the amount in the larger Cities and Towns; in the smaller, the yearly amount would be about \$6.67, per week, or \$280.14 per year. The pay of Painters is a half penny an hour less, giving about \$283.00 for the year. So that it is plain, that, at \$271.79 as the average annual cost of maintaining a family of 4 to 5 persons, the workmen in these several employments must practice the most self-denying economy, to keep out of debt.

All the above figures confirm the general idea, that, for centuries, the English workman's earnings have kept along, with small purchasing power, and smaller force of lift, to raise him up in the social scale.

Mr. Levi further observes that these varied sources of expenditure of a workman, form a large sum during a year, and that it is quite evident, that, with the increase of intelligence and civilization, the increase of comforts and education sought by every branch of society, the cost of living, be it absolute or conventional, has greatly augmented;—specially in recent years,—and that, taking all things into account, it is probable that the increase of wages which has taken place, has scarcely been equivalent to the corresponding increase in the expenditures of the working classes.

If the reader will look over a few foregoing pages, he will find the yearly earnings of small farmers in England, and of Carpenters, Masons and House-Tilers, reduced to their present equivalent value, and will find that these yearly earnings bear a very near and noteworthy equality to those given above, as the yearly earnings of the same class of workmen, at the present day. Not without forceful truth, then, is the remark of Mr. Hallam, quoted before, and that of Mr. Levi, that the earnings of the workmen have not kept pace with the progress of the times; and justifiable is the inference, that the purchasing power of their earnings, in the 19th century, is not in proportion to what it was, in the 14th and 15th. With so

long continued and patient endurance, it cannot be subject of great marvel, that they are now constrained to greater and more united efforts. They are not satisfied, and the temper of the times has taught them, and demands of them to practise the lesson, not to be satisfied with what satisfied their predecessors,—a miscalled home, inadequate clothing, a half-starved body, and a wholly starved mind.

PURCHASING POWER OF WAGES IN MASSACHUSETTS, FROM 1630 TO 1870.

The materials for information upon these subjects, during the earlier times of our colonial history, are very meagre and unsatisfactory, and but little can be gathered even with patient research and considerable calculation. Like other history, ours takes the heroic form and is silent about the details of industry. We give the best we can find, deriving our data from Felt's "Historical Account of the Currency of Massachusetts," and from several local histories of Cities and Towns, from County Records and from old, private, family bills.

In 1630, following the method of the "Statutes of Wages" in England, it was ordered by the board of magistrates, that common laborers should be paid at the rate of 12*d.* a day—or 22 cents—(rating the £ sterling at \$4 44, though the Federal Currency did not then exist), without diet, and 6*d.* a day, or 11 cents with diet,—thus establishing a day's board for this class of workmen at 11 cents. With board, then, a laborer would earn in a working year of 300 days, with diet, \$33.00—and without diet \$66. This number of days is very liberal, and implies constant work and no stoppage for any cause. Yet the number will answer for a comparative statement. Take now, the earnings of the laborer *without* board,—\$66, for the year,—and let us see what its purchasing power will accomplish. At this date, wheat was rated in the Colony at 5*s.* or \$1.11 a bushel; an Ox, at £6, or \$26.67; a Cow, at £5, or \$22.22; a Sheep, at £1 10*s.* or \$6.67; beef being 3½ cents, and mutton at 4½ to 5 cents, a pound. We will suppose the laborer to have a family of 4 persons to maintain,—to each of whom we will allow a quantity equal to one barrel of flour* per year, of 196 pounds,

* Bolted flour was a luxury at this time. We use the term *barrel of flour* in our computations, meaning thereby a specified quantity of the different breadstuffs.

yielding 250 one-pound loaves. Such allowance may always be taken as the yearly consumption of bread in a family,—one barrel per person, per year. To make this barrel of flour will require, at 5 bushels of 60 pounds each, of wheat, per barrel, 20 bushels ; which, at \$1.11 a bushel, would have cost \$22.20. Deduct this from his yearly earnings of \$66.00, and he has left \$43.80.

In 1631, an exceptionally dear year, wheat rose to more than double this price, and meat was very dear ;—a cow selling at \$111.11 ; and an Ox, at \$88.88. Very many persons were compelled to subsist on clams, acorns, and ground and other nuts.

Let us now see whether this laborer, with the remainder of his money, could buy much meat for his family, or a house, or clothe its members with much comfort. Allowing half a pound of beef a day, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents, to each of the 4 members of his household, would involve an outlay of 7 cents a day ; or \$25.55 a year, of 365 days, reducing his \$43.80 to \$18.25 for other expenditures. Manifestly, he could not afford beef every day, and must have resorted to the occasional bacon of his brother laborer in England ; or, to the cheaper fish, clams and nuts, at home, this \$18.25 being all he had left for all other household expenses, if he had a family. Were he to live unmarried, and at an expense for board of 15 cents a day, or \$54.75, a year, he could meet that expense and have \$11.25 left for other personal expenses. For the mere unskilled laborer, with such earnings, however, marriage and a family would seem to have been out of the question.

Let us now take the case of a skilled workman at 44 cents, a day, without board, and a journeyman at 37 cents, a day, also without board. These figures are obtained by taking the Statute daily pay of 29 and 22 cents, and adding 15 cents a day, for cost of board ; which price we take as a mean between 11 cents, a day, for board of common laborers, and 18 cents, established three years later, in 1633, for a day's board. At 44 cents a day, for 300 days' continuous work,—a *very large allowance** for the year's work of carpenters, and masons and similar craftsmen,—they would realize \$132.00, and their journeymen, \$111.00, respectively. But there must be no stop-

* This large allowance is yielded to the pressure upon the early colonists for extra work demanded by their situation.

page of work for any cause whatever,—sickness, holidays or recreation. As with the married laborer, we will suppose a family of 4 persons to be provided for. Their bread, at the foregoing rate of a barrel of flour, per annum, to each of the four, and at the price named of \$1.11 per bushel of wheat, 5 bushels of 60 pounds to each barrel of flour, would cost \$22.20 ; and their meat, at the same allowance of half a pound for each person per day, would have cost, at the price named, \$25.55, so that meat and bread would have cost \$47.75, and there would have remained to the carpenter and mason, each, \$84.25, and to their journeyman \$63.25, to meet all other expenses.

Of the cost of clothing, no record is found. It was mainly homespun and very simple, plain and cheap. Shoes being at about \$1.00 for men's, and 80 cents for women's, and a "proportionate price for children's," say 60 cents, could be afforded, and allowing two pairs a year, for each member of the household, costing in all \$4.80, there would remain to the several parties, about \$80, and \$60, respectively, to meet rents, fuel, clothing, &c., &c. No record is found of house-rent, yet it must have been inconsiderable ; their dwellings being of the simplest construction, and readily run up, with the lumber growing close at hand. As in England, at this time, the open commons afforded common pasturage for cows, and milk would be greatly used for food. Yet the struggle among all classes of the colonists must have been of the severest nature, and have demanded vast resolution and self-denial. They, who for religious and civil liberty could endure so much, and make sacrifices so incredible, were no ordinary men.

But it must not be supposed that the balance just now shown was an actual cash balance, and could be used to advantage by investment in stocks, scrip, or savings banks. They had no means of the sort. Society, with them, was not ripened up to those financial facilities. Their circulating media seem to have been beaver skins, grain of various sorts, cattle, and Indian wampum. This was made by the Indians of the inner stems of periwinkles,* (found on sea-side rocks),—after the outer shell had been broken off. These were arranged upon strings, and were white in color, six of them being rated at the

* Felt's History of Currency.

value of 2 cents. Another kind, black and more rare, was made of the shell of the "poquahock," and were rated at three for 2 cents,—six feet, or a fathom of them being rated at 5s. or \$1.11. Articles of peltry, abundantly brought in by the Indians, and eagerly sought for exportation, were quite a general medium of exchange. But payments of salaries and other dues were, from the want of coin, usually paid in kind. Rev. George Phillips of Watertown,* was to have for his salary, three hogsheads of meal, one of malt, four bushels of corn, one of oat meal, and half a quintal of salt fish; and for apparel and incidentals, £20, or \$88.89; or, in place of the above named provisions, £11 or \$48.89, making a total of \$137.78. An Indian was fined one beaver skin, for shooting a swine of Sir Richard Saltonstall's; and Sir Richard himself was fined four bushels of malt, for absence from General Court. The island, on which East Boston is now built, was originally granted to Mr. Samuel Maverick for "one fat wether, a fat hog, or 40s." = \$8.89—with the right conceded to inhabitants of Boston and Charlestown to cut wood from the southern end of the island. The gunner at the Castle in Boston Harbor, received as salary, 250 bushels of corn at 89 cents a bushel.

With a circulating medium in such variety and with such methods of adjusting payments between debtors and creditors, it is not easy to determine the purchasing power of men's earnings. Statutes there were limiting wages to a money value, but these wages were often commuted in kind, and paid in peltry, or grain of some sort, and these to be, at times, rated, "as men can agree." There was a general tax of £616 15s. (\$2,741.11) levied on the several Towns of the State, in 1645, to be paid in money, beaver skins, wheat at 4s. (89c.) the bushel,—barley the same,—rye at 3s. 6d. (78c.),—pease the same,—corn at 2s. 8d. (59c.), and "cattle to be valued by three men." There was great embarrassment from the want of hard money and every species of exchange. All confidence, at times, was broken up, and people were emigrating from England to other countries because of the contentions in England between the Royalists and Parliament. These troubles were of long continuation, and led to singular resorts. Governor Winthrop tells a story of a Mr. Rowley and his servant. Finding it difficult to pay

* Mass. Colony Records.

the man's wages, Mr. R. sold a pair of oxen for the purpose, and then told the man that he could no longer keep him, as he could not pay him the next year. The man said he would serve for more cattle. "But what shall I do," said the master, "when all are gone?" "Oh," replied the man, "you can then serve me, and so get the cattle back again."* Such a contract, implying change of position, might have gone on indefinitely. Troubled for the *want* of money, our fathers were still more troubled about keeping in the country what little they had for circulation.† The tendency of the coin was always towards the mother country, as the latter was always sending to us more than it received from us.

About the year 1650, a change took place in the pecuniary matters of the colony,—the Legislature determining to establish a mint of its own, and to coin its own money. Such a measure had a flavor of treason, inasmuch as the coining of money is a reserved right of the supreme government of a country. But just at this date, King Charles I. having been dethroned and beheaded, and Cromwell having taken possession of the government and been created Protector (1649–1653), our forefathers seemed disposed to think that a little supremacy might be safely assumed, and they might act independently of him, in providing for the convenience and good of their own community, without much, if any risk of collision.

It was therefore ordered by the General Court* that "all persons have libertye to bring vnto the mint house at Boston all bullyon, plate, or Spanish coyne, there to be melted and brought to the allay of starling silver by John Hull, master of the said mint, and by him to be coyned into twelve penny, six penny, and three penny pieces." The money thus created found its way to England, and passed at a discount of 25 per cent. On the restoration of King Charles, the question of the right of the Colony to coin money assumed a serious aspect; and King Charles II. utterly disapproving it, the colonial government resorted to conciliatory presents to allay his disfavor. The favor of the King, was, however, never secured; yet the mint seems to have continued its operations down to the time of William and Mary, (1688), when renewed efforts were made for its authorization,—but without success, and it was discontinued about

* Mass. Colony Records.

† Felt's Currency.

1690; though its coin continued in circulation long afterwards, and even as late as the war of the Revolution.

This digression is made in explanation of the difficulty of determining the value of earnings, and of computing their actual purchasing power during colonial times. We can find the prices of some articles of consumption, they being, however, mainly the cereal products. Very little, almost nothing, is found of the prices of fresh meats; and nothing at all, of the general cost of living. The English statistics, on these subjects, are far more abundant and instructive. In a record of prices appointed by the General Court from 1642 to 1694, no mention is made of any kind of meats. Wheat averaged at 4s. 10d. a bushel; varying between 6 shillings and 2s. 9d., though excluding its prices when paid into the treasury for taxes (2s. 9d.), it averaged about 5 shillings—\$1.11. In 1670, a statute of wages was attempted, passing in the house of Magistrates, but failing in the house of Deputies. It however indicates the extent to which labor was valued, and the cotemporary cost of certain articles of consumption. Laborers by the day were to receive, on an average for the year, working 10 hours a day, 1s. 6½d., or 34 cents, say \$102 00, a year, of 300 days, and Carpenters and Masons from March to October,—7 months, or 184 working days, 44 cents a day—being \$80.96 for that period. Nothing is said of their pay for the other 5 months. At the same rate, they would get a total of \$132.00 for the year. Master Tailors, and Weavers, for a day's work of 12 hours, were to be paid 1s. 8d. or 37 cents; or \$114.70, a year, of 310 days.* Coopers, for a barrel of 32 gallons, were to receive 2s. 8d., or 59 cents; and shoemakers, 5s., or \$1.11 for men's shoes, and 3s. 8d., or 82 cents, for women's shoes. The pay of common laborers had risen, since 1630, to 33 cents a day, or \$99.00 a year,* they boarding themselves. Other wages seem not to have varied. Wheat was at an average of \$1.11 a bushel, and beef at 3½ cents a pound.

Grain, as a currency, was excluded from circulation, to a great extent, about the close of the 17th century, bills of credit, varying from 5s. to £5,—“due from the Massachusetts Colony to the Possessor,” having been authorized and issued in Decem-

* For out of door workmen, we have allowed 300 days, and for in-door 310 days a year.

ber 1690,—and continuing in use until about 1750. Felt gives “as an example of the worth of money in labor,” in 1712, that “Carpenters received 5s. a day, or \$1.11, for building the Town House in Boston,—silver being 8s. or \$1.78 an ounce ;” so that, in silver, their daily pay was five-eighths of an ounce.

In 1697, as appears by a vote of the Town of Lynn, providing for the payment of Rev. Mr. Shepard’s salary, beef was worth 3*d.* or 6 cents, a pound ; pork, 4*d.* or 7 cents ; Indian corn, 5s. or \$1.11, a bushel ; rye, 5s. 6*d.* or \$1.22 ; and oats, 2s. or 44 cents ; his salary, in 1699, being reduced to £60, or \$266.67. Wheat rose to 6s. or \$1.33, in 1727 ; rye, to 5s. or \$1.11 ; and Indian corn, to 3s. or 67 cents.

We have now to make a wide leap to find any positive data, landing at the year 1777 (January 25), when an Act was passed, by the Legislature of Massachusetts, “to prevent monopoly and oppression,” as was alleged. But, previously to this, in March 1750, an Act had been passed establishing the rates at which certain coins should pass, under which an English Guinea was rated at 28 Shillings, lawful money ; a Crown, 6s. 8*d.* ; a Dollar, 6s. and a Shilling-piece, 1s. 4*d.* ; £30 equalling \$100.* Hence our common phrases of *nine shillings* became the equivalent of \$1.50, our *seven and sixpence* became \$1.25, our *four and sixpence* became 75 cents,—expressions still in use, though gradually passing away. We shall now reckon prices of labor and food at these rates. This Act of 1777, a sort of Statute of Wages, declared that the “price of farming labor, in the Summer season, should not exceed 3s. by the day, and found,” (say, 50 cents and board), “and the labor of Mechanics and Tradesmen, and other labor, in proportion, when compared with farm labor, according to the usages and customs heretofore adopted and practised in this State.” Now examining into this proportion, we find that Mechanics doubtless received from 33 to 50 per cent. more than common farm-laborers ; giving them, say, 67 to 75 cents, a day, and board ; and, as in 1780, Carpenters, by Table preceding, are found to have received a dollar, a day, we may rate their board at 25 to 33 cents, a day. Masons, however, who work fewer days

* The Salary of a Country Clergyman at these dates, was generally £100 Old Tenor, or \$333.33.

in the year, received \$1.25. A Carpenter, then, working 260* days in a year, would earn \$260; and a mason, working 250 days, would earn \$312.50.

The Act then proceeds to declare “that the following articles shall not be sold for a higher price than is hereinafter settled and affixed to them respectively,” viz. :—

Wheat, 7s. 6d. per bushel, or	\$1 25
Rye, 5s. per bushel, or	83
Indian meal, 4s. per bushel, or	67
Beef, grass-fed, 3d. per lb., or	4
Beef, stall-fed, 4d. per lb., or	5½
Beef, salt, 3¾d. per lb., or	5
Pork, fresh, 4½d. per lb., or	6¼
Pork, salt, 5d. per lb., or	7
Mutton, lamb and veal, 4d. per lb., or	5½
Butter, 10d. per lb., or	14
Cheese, 6d. per lb., or	8½
Sugar, 8d. per lb., or	11
Molasses, 4s. per gal., or	67
Pease, 8s. per bushel, or	1 33
Beans, 6s. per bushel, or	1 00
Potatoes, 1s. 8d. per bushel, or	28
Coffee, 1s. 4d. per lb., or	23
Poultry, 4d. per lb., or	5½
Flour,† 3d. per lb., or	4
Shoes, men's, 8s. per pair, or	1 33
Shoes, women's, 7s. per pair, or	1 17
Wood, 28s. per cord, or	4 67

Taking this Table, and making computations from its figures, for cost of articles for a family of 4 persons, we have the following as a yearly expenditure for maintenance :—

* These are the working days of a year, now generally given by mechanics—(1872).

† Actual bills, however, place Flour in 1780, at \$16.66. We use a medium price of \$12.00 a barrel.

Cost of Living.

	Price.	Total.
Rent,	—	\$30 00
Flour, 4 bbls.,	\$7 84	31 36
Meats, 800 lbs.,	5	40 00
Butter, 80 lbs.,	14	11 20
Sugar, 150 lbs.,	11	16 50
Molasses, 12 gals.,	67	8 04
Potatoes, 12 bush.,	28	3 36
Coffee, 30 lbs.,	22	6 60
Salt, pepper, etc.,	—	2 25
Beans, 1½ bush.,	1 00	1 50
Clothing,	—	50 00
Shoes (8 average pairs),	1 25	10 00
Fuel, 2 cords,	4 67	18 68
	—	\$229 49

To meet which cost, the Carpenter has \$260.00, the Mason \$312.50, leaving them, respectively, \$30.51, and \$83.01, for other expenses. But, in 1780, three years later, this cost would have gone up at least 33 per cent. making it about \$306—while wages remained stationary.

This was in the dark periods of the Revolution, during which Massachusetts paid into the Continental Treasury nearly \$2,000,000 more than she received back; the five States of Georgia, N. and S. Carolina, Virginia and Maryland having paid thereto less than \$200,000 more than they received back; she furnishing more soldiers than any other State, excepting Pennsylvania. Out of the struggle we came utterly exhausted,—though victorious,—and surrounded by complications and difficulties of the most distracting and disheartening nature; a combination of poverty, disorder and almost anarchy. But the result has shown that the great cost was greatly repaid.

In 1780, prices advanced very greatly;—flour being at \$16.67, a barrel; tea, \$2, a pound; salt fish, 33 cents; rice, 17 cents; corn, \$6.67, a bushel; beef, 13 cents, a pound; potatoes, \$2.44, a bushel; rice, 18 cents, a pound;—but wages were at only 50 cents to \$1.28, a day. The depreciation (of the currency) disturbs the calculation, the rate between January 1777, and January 1778, being as 1 to 3; in January 1779, as 1 to 6¼; and in January 1780, as 1 to 30! Beef rose, be-

tween January 1777 and January 1780, from 4*d.* to 8*s.* 9*d.*—or from 5 $\frac{1}{4}$ cents to \$1.47 a pound, and Indian Corn, from 4*s.* to £8, or from 67 cents to \$26.67 ! reckoning the £ at \$3.33.

We will now proceed to illustrate this subject in certain decades of the present century. And first, we give a Table of prices of labor and articles of subsistence which have been gathered, 1st, from the old papers of the Hathorne and Ward families, of Salem, preserved among the archives of the Essex Institute ; 2d, from County Bills, in the Books of County Commissioners of Essex County ; and 3d, from the memories of workmen themselves.

TABLE 1.—Groceries.

YEARS.	Molasses, gal.	Flour, bbl.	Indian Meal, pk.	Rye Meal, pk.	Butter, lb.	Sugar, lb.	Coffee, lb.	Cheese, lb.	Tea, lb.	Fresh Fish, lb.	Salt Fish, lb.	Fine Salt, bush.	Beans, peck.	Hard Soap, lb.	Rice, lb.	Corn, bush.	Eggs, doz.	Lard, lb.	Apples, bush.
1780,	\$0 41½	\$16 16	1 02½ ²	\$0 33	\$0 14	\$0 15	\$0 26	\$0 19	\$2 00	\$0 11½	\$0 33	\$1 25	\$0 44	\$0 11	\$0 17	\$0 89	\$0 07	\$0 89	\$2 67
1790,	36½	9 38½	30	30	13	6	17	5	1 22½	5½	17	2 00	22½ ²	7	12	67	9	17	2 33
1800,	37½	10 00	35	33	23½	9	28	7	1 08½	6½	3½	72½	64	8	4	94	19½	9½	2 50
1810,	42½	5 50	27½	25	19½	11	16½	9	1 05	6½	3½	75	7	10	5	67½	18½	10	2 50
1820,	45	5 00	23½	25	18½	13	21½	8½	76½	3½	3½	1 00	6½	11½	5	66½	17½	10	1 87½
1830,	45	4 75	27½	21	18	11	9	10	86	5	5	90	7	8	6½	85	19	11	2 75
1840,	47½	4 81	25	19	20	7½	7	11	79	4½	6	77½	8	8	7	61½	15½	12½	3 25
1850,	45	6 50	26½	25	23	8½	13½	11	53	7½	6	87½	9½	8	7	92½	13½	12½	90
1860,	45	9 50	30	25	27½	12½	31½	17	92½	11½	6½	85	8	10	6	92½	18½	14	80
1870,	75	11 00	33	42½	43½	13	31	22½	1 10	7	9	1 12	11	11	10	1 00	29	23½	2 40
1863, ¹	50	10 00	30	32	29½	15	45	17½	99	9	7	96	12½	10	9½	1 20	22½	13	50
1864, ¹	75½	10 00	37½	40	39½	20½	45	21	1 23	10½	9	96	12½	13	14	1 80	27½	20½	50

¹ War years.² Bushel.³ Young Hyson.⁴ Quart.

TABLE 2.—Provisions.

YEARS.	Fresh Beef, lbs.	Corned Beef, lbs.	Veal, lbs.	Fresh Pork, lbs.	Salt Pork, lbs.	Ham, lbs.	Lamb, lbs.	Mutton, lbs.	Turkeys, lbs.	Chickens, lbs.	Potatoes, bush.	Oil, gals.	Candles, lbs.	Pepper, lbs.	Starch, lbs.	Ginger, lbs.	Vinegar, gals.	Milk, qts.
1780,	\$0 08	\$0 09	\$0 03½	\$0 17	\$0 08½	\$0 08½	\$0 04½	\$0 04	\$0 05½	\$0 05½	\$0 25	\$1 17	\$1 00	\$0 20	\$0 17	\$0 25	\$0 17	\$0 03
1790,	4½	4½	4½	8½	8½	8½	3½	3	4½	4½	17	62½	33	17	12½	17	-	3
1800,	65	6½	5½	8	11	10	6½	5½	8½	237½	45	62½	20	19	12	21	20	3
1810,	8	7½	8½	6½	6	10½	7½	6	8	8½	36½	90	35	20	11½	22	20	4
1820,	8	7½	8½	7	6	12½	9	6	8½	10	25	1 00	20	31	15	24	22	4
1830,	8	8	8½	9	10	9½	9½	8½	9½	10	45	95	20	22	18	26	26	4
1840,	10	10½	10½	9½	12½	12½	12½	11½	12½	12½	52½	1 20	32	20	16½	20	20	4
1850,	10½	13	10½	13½	13½	19	10½	10	17	14½	65	1 12½	37½	20	13½	15	32½	4½
1860,	17	11	11½	12½	12½	16½	12½	11½	17	18	62½	1 67	29	20	11	12	21½	6½
1870,	32	22½	29	20	20	33	23½	21	29	31½	1 45	1 80	39	40	15	35	49	7½
1863, ¹	20	16	15½	12	12	18	19	13½	20	25	1 40	67½	23	40	12½	35	21	5
1864, ¹	21	17½	15½	17	18½	19	20	18	27½	30	1 50	80	21½	55	13	50½	27	5

¹ War years.² Per pair.³ Kerosene.

TABLE 3.—Cloth and Clothing.

YEARS.	Great Coat.	Pantaloon.	Dress Coat.	Vest.	Suits Clothes.	Boots, pair.	Shoes, pair.	Hose, pair.	Hat.	Broadcloth, yd.	Cassimere, yd.	Velvets, yd.	Blue Coating, yd.	Cotton, yd.	Linon, yd.	Sheeting, yd.	Calico, yd.	Flannel, yd.
1780,	-	-	\$10 00	\$3 33	-	\$5 00	\$2 00	\$0 75	\$5 33	\$8 67	\$2 33	\$2 33	\$3 42	\$1 67	\$0 69	\$0 33	\$0 67	\$0 67
1790,	-	\$5 00	-	3 00	-	3 67	1 04	75	-	-	2 21	1 00	1 24	33	43	40 ³ / ₈	57	37 ¹ / ₂
1800,	\$25 00	5 00	16 00	3 00	\$25 00	4 00	1 33	80	2 92	3 84	2 25	1 00	1 25	30	37 ¹ / ₂	43	45	41 ¹ / ₂
1810,	25 00	6 00	16 00	3 00	25 00	4 00	1 12	50	4 25	4 50	2 25	3 75	1 25	25	35 ¹ / ₄	20	14	72 ¹ / ₈
1820,	27 50	9 58	25 00	3 50	27 50	3 25	1 05	37 ¹ / ₂	4 00	4 75	2 62 ¹ / ₂	3 75	2 37 ¹ / ₂	18 ¹ / ₂	55 ³ / ₈	13 ¹ / ₄	10	63 ¹ / ₄
1830,	27 50	6 00	18 00	3 75	27 50	3 75	2 25	49	4 00	5 00	2 00	4 25	3 25	18	46	13	10	83 ¹ / ₂
1840,	27 50	6 50	18 00	3 75	27 50	3 75	2 25	44	4 00	5 00	2 37 ¹ / ₂	5 00	4 50	12	50	11	10 ¹ / ₂	61
1850,	25 00	6 33	17 50	5 00	27 50	4 66	2 25	44	4 75	5 00	2 25	5 00	4 50	10	55	11 ¹ / ₄	10 ¹ / ₂	43 ³ / ₄
1860,	29 00	6 25	17 50	4 50	27 50	4 00	2 00	50	5 25	5 00	2 25	5 50	5 00	12 ⁵ / ₈	56	11 ¹ / ₂	11	55
1870,	42 50	11 00	35 00	6 00	42 50	9 00	2 37	55	7 50	6 00	2 25	7 00	5 00	16	68 ¹ / ₂	15	11	84
1863, ¹	30 00	7 25	18 00	4 75	40 00	6 50	3 00	55	6 50	5 50	2 50	5 75	5 25	25	60	20	11	55
1864, ¹	35 00	7 75	19 00	5 50	40 00	8 00	3 00	55	7 00	6 00	2 50	7 00	5 25	32	67 ¹ / ₂	32 ¹ / ₄	19	57 ¹ / ₂

¹ War years.

TABLE 5.—Wages.

WAGES (per day).				
Carpenter.	Mason.	Blacksmith.	Painter.	Day Laborer.
\$0 87½	\$1 28	\$0 83	\$0 67	\$0 50
87½	1 62½	-	94½	75
1 02½	2 00	-	1 12½	95
1 50	2 00	-	1 37½	1 00
1 50	1 50	-	1 37½	1 00
1 62½	1 87½	-	1 87½	68½
1 62½	2 00	1 62½	1 50	87½
1 50	2 00	1 87½	1 75	87½
1 87½	2 25	2 25	2 00	1 12½
3 25	3 83½	2 50	3 00	1 33½
3 00	3 50	2 75	2 50	1 37½
3 00	3 50	2 75	2 50	1 37½

TABLE 4.—Fuel.

YEARS.	FUEL.			
	Wood, cord.	Bark, cord.	Coal, ton.	Hay, ton.
1780,	\$2 67	\$2 27	- ²	\$6 83
1790,	2 00	3 50	- ²	11 67
1800,	10 00	5 00	- ²	233 10
1810,	5 00	5 25	- ²	16 00
1820,	7 50	6 00	- ²	22 50
1830,	6 00	6 50	\$5 00	22 50
1840,	6 00	6 25	7 50	25 00
1850,	6 00	7 00	6 50	25 00
1860,	7 00	8 50	7 50	28 00
1870,	12 00	14 00	9 00	37 00
1863, ¹	8 00	9 00	10 00	25 00
1864, ¹	11 00	12 00	11 50	36 00

² Had not come into use.

¹ War years.

In the following Table, we give the day's pay of these several trades, their working days for the year and their yearly earnings.

Wages and Income, 1800.

TRADES.	Per day.	Working days.	Income.
Master Carpenter,	\$1 25	260	\$325 00
Journeyman,	1 00	260	260 00
Apprentice,	83	260	215 80
Master Mason,	2 00	250	500 00
Journeyman,	1 50	250	375 00
Master Painter,	1 25	260	325 00
Journeyman,	1 00	260	260 00
Blacksmith,	1 00	310	310 00

In this century, (1800), the Federal Currency of dollars and cents was in full practice and computations become simple and easy.

With these earnings and average families of 4 persons only,—which is full low enough,—the expenses of a family would be as follows, rating the consumption of flour, at a barrel per person per year, which will be found to be an almost constant number.

Expenses for 1800.

COST OF LIVING.	Price.	Total.
Rent,	—	\$50 00
Flour, 4 bbls.,	\$10 00	40 00
Meats, 1,000 lbs.,	7	70 00
Butter, 150 lbs.,	23	34 50
Lard, 100 lbs.,	10	10 00
Cheese, 25 lbs.,	9	2 25
Sugar, 200 lbs.,	11	22 00
Carried forward,	—	\$228 75

Expenses for 1800—Continued.

COST OF LIVING—Con'd.	Price.	Total.
<i>Brought forward,</i>	—	\$228 75
Molasses, 15 gals.,	\$0 42	6 30
Milk, 275 qts.,	6	16 50
Coffee, 50 lbs.,	16	8 00
Tea, 12 lbs.,	1 00	12 00
Fish, fresh and salt, 100 lbs.,	4	4 00
Rice, 15 lbs.,	5	75
Soap and starch, 100 lbs.,	10	10 00
Beans, 2 bush.,	1 92	3 84
Potatoes, 15 bush.,	45	6 75
Salt, 1 peck,	19	19
Pepper, $\frac{1}{4}$ lb.,	24	6
Vinegar, $1\frac{1}{2}$ gals.,	25	38
Eggs, 25 doz.,	18	4 50
General vegetables,	—	5 00
Fruits, 1 bbl.,	2 00	2 00
Coal, tons (none used),	—	—
Wood, 4 cords,	8 00	32 00
Light (70 lbs. candles),	20	14 00
Books,	—	5 00
Papers,	—	2 00
Clothing each person,	15 00	67 00
	—	\$429 02

The Master Mason only could meet this expense. But the Carpenter, with his work, even if he worked 300 days, at \$1.25, yielding \$375.00, and the Blacksmith, with his work for 310 days, at \$1.00 a day (without board), yielding \$310, would not be able to live at the rate indicated in this Table, and must curtail expenses somewhere, to avoid debt. Each must get along with less flour, meat, butter, milk, wood and clothing—and practice a general, sharp economy. The same is true of the Painter, and the several journeymen. Let us now take two other periods, 1830 and 1860.

Wages and Earnings for 1830 and 1860.

TRADES.	Working days.	1830.		1860.	
		Per day.	Income.	Per day.	Income.
Master Carpenters, . . .	260	\$1 75	\$455 00	\$2 00	\$520 00
Journeyman Carpenters, . .	260	1 50	390 00	1 75	455 00
Master Masons, . . .	250	2 00	500 00	2 50	625 00
Journeyman Masons, . . .	250	1 75	437 50	2 00	500 00
Apprentices, . . .	250	1 33	332 50	—	—
Blacksmiths, . . .	310	1 62	502 20	2 25	697 50
Master Painters, . . .	260	1 75	455 00	2 00	520 00
Journeyman Painters, . . .	260	—	—	1 75	455 00
Laborers, . . .	260	87	226 20	1 25	325 00

Expenses for 1830.

COST OF LIVING.	Price.	Total.
Rent,	—	\$80 00
Flour, 4 bbls.,	\$5 00	20 00
Meats, 1,000 lbs.,	9	90 00
Butter, 150 lbs.,	18	27 00
Lard, 100 lbs.,	11	11 00
Cheese, 25 lbs.,	10	2 50
Sugar, 200 lbs.,	11	22 00
Molasses, 15 gals.,	45	6 75
Milk, 275 qts.,	4	11 00
Coffee, 50 lbs.,	09	4 50
Tea, 12 lbs.,	86	10 32
Fish, fresh and salt, 100 lbs.,	5	5 00
Rice, 15 lbs.,	7	1 05
Soap and starch,	15	15 00
Beans, 2 bush.,	2 25	4 50
Potatoes, 15 bush.,	45	6 75
Salt, 1 peck,	45	45
Pepper, 1 lb.,	22	6
Vinegar, 1½ gals.,	26	39
Eggs, 25 doz.,	19	4 75
General vegetables,	—	4 00
Fruits, bbl.,	—	2 00
Coal, 3 tons,	5 00	15 00
Wood, 1 cord,	6 00	6 00
Light (candles, 70 lbs.),	20	14 00
Books,	—	5 00
Papers,	—	2 00
Clothing, each,	15 00	60 00
Total,	—	\$431 02

A comparison of these several earnings with the cost of subsistence preceding them, will show that the year was, comparatively, a favorable one for workmen, and yet, that they could not make large savings.

We will now take the Table of prices, in 1860. The reader must not forget that no allowance is made for any interruption of labor and earnings for any cause whatever,—sickness or other, nor for any outlay for religious or charity accounts.

In that year, (1860), the expense of a family of 4 persons, would be as follows:—

Expenses for 1860.

COST OF LIVING.	Price.	Total.
Rent,	—	\$100 00
Flour, 4 bbls.,	\$9 50	38 00
Meats, 1,000 lbs.,	14	140 00
Butter, 150 lbs.,	30	45 00
Lard, 100 lbs.,	14	14 00
Cheese, 25 lbs.,	17	4 25
Sugar, 200 lbs.,	12	24 00
Molasses, 15 gals.,	45	6 75
Milk, 275 qts.,	6	16 50
Coffee, 50 lbs.,	30	15 00
Tea, 12 lbs.,	75	9 00
Fish, fresh and salt, 100 lbs.,	7	7 00
Rice, 15 lbs.,	6	90
Soap and starch, 100 lbs.,	10	10 00
Beans, 2 bush.,	2 50	5 00
Potatoes, 15 bush.,	60	9 00
Salt, 1 peck,	42	42
Pepper, $\frac{1}{4}$ lb.,	20	5
Vinegar, $1\frac{1}{2}$ gals.,	20	30
Eggs, 25 doz.,	18	4 50
General vegetables,	—	5 00
Fruits,	—	3 00
Coal, 3 tons,	7 50	22 50
Wood, 1 cord,	6 00	6 00
Light (gas),	—	20 00
Books,	—	6 00
Papers,	—	3 00
Clothing, each, 4,	18 00	72 00
	—	\$587 17

Apprentices seemed to be discontinued, as a general rule.

The Blacksmith and the Master-Mason alone of these craftsmen can meet the expenses of a family of 4 persons, at the rates named.

A comparison of these earnings and costs of living, shows the purchasing power of the former, and indicates the same general conclusion, a conclusion applicable to all time, that the workingmen's income, so long as they are mere workingmen, and not employers of other workingmen, on whose labor they can charge a profit, keeps along, sometimes a little over, but oftener, a good deal under the cost of maintaining his family; and that, too, under a good deal of economical self-denial.

We now take the years 1863 and '64, and go through with the same computations, and comparison between income and expenditures.

Wages and Earnings for 1863 and 1864.

TRADES.	Working days.	1863.		1864.	
		Per day.	Income.	Per day.	Income.
Master Carpenters, . . .	260	\$3 00	\$780 00	\$3 50	\$910 00
Journeyman Carpenters, . .	260	2 50	650 00	3 00	780 00
Master Masons, . . .	250	3 50	875 00	3 75	937 00
Journeyman Masons, . . .	250	3 00	750 00	3 00	750 00
Tenders,	250	—	—	1 75	437 50
Blacksmiths,	310	2 75	852 50	2 75	852 50
Master Painters,	260	2 50	650 00	3 00	780 00
Journeyman Painters, . . .	260	2 25	585 00	2 50	650 00
Laborers,	260	1 75	455 00	1 75	455 00

The decade 1860-70, which witnessed the terrific struggle for the preservation of the government and unity of the United States, was likewise the witness of years of vast advances in prices and cost of living, with increase of wages and earnings, yet not in an equal ratio. In exemplification of this, we give tables of prices for the years 1863 and 1864, the two most costly years of the war. For the sake of comparison, we keep the illustrative family at four (4) persons, though that is too small.

Expenses for 1863.

COST OF LIVING.	Price.	Total.
Rent,	—	\$125 00
Flour, 4 bbls.,	\$10 00	40 00
Meats, 1,000 lbs.,	16	160 00
Butter, 150 lbs.,	30	45 00
Lard, 100 lbs.,	13	13 00
Cheese, 25 lbs.,	18	4 50
Sugar, 200 lbs.,	15	30 00
Molasses, 15 gals.,	50	7 50
Milk, 275 qts.,	6	16 50
Coffee, 50 lbs.,	45	22 50
Tea, 12 lbs.,	1 00	12 00
Fish, fresh and salt, 100 lbs.,	9	9 00
Rice, 15 lbs.,	9	1 35
Soap and starch, 100 lbs.,	11	11 00
Beans, 2 bush.,	4 00	8 00
Potatoes, 15 bush.,	1 40	21 00
Salt, 1 peck,	48	48
Pepper, $\frac{1}{4}$ lb.,	40	10
Vinegar, $1\frac{1}{2}$ gals.,	21	32
Eggs, 25 doz.,	25	6 25
General vegetables,	—	6 00
Fruit,	—	4 00
Coal, 3 tons,	9 00	27 00
Wood, 1 cord,	9 00	9 00
Light,	—	20 00
Books,	—	7 00
Papers,	—	5 00
Clothing, each, 4,	25 00	100 00
Total,	—	\$711 50

Let us now take the year 1864 and contrast its earnings and cost of living.

Expenses for 1864.

COST OF LIVING.	Price.	Total.
Rent,	—	\$125 00
Flour, 4 bbls.,	\$10 00	40 00
Meats, 1,000 lbs.,	19	190 00
Butter, 150 lbs.,	40	60 00
Lard, 100 lbs.,	22	22 00
Cheese, 25 lbs.,	21	5 25
Sugar, 200 lbs.,	18	36 00
Carried forward,	—	\$478 25

Expenses for 1864—Continued.

COST OF LIVING—Con'd.						Price.	Total.
<i>Brought forward,</i>	—	\$478 25
Molasses, 15 gals.,	\$0 90	13 50
Milk, 275 qts,	6	16 50
Coffee, 50 lbs.,	45	22 50
Tea, 12 lbs,	1 20	14 40
Fish, fresh and salt, 100 lbs.,	9	9 00
Rice, 15 lbs.,	14	2 10
Soap and starch, 100 lbs.,	12	12 00
Beans, 2 bush.,	4 00	8 00
Potatoes, 15 bush.,	1 50	22 50
Salt, 1 peck,	48	48
Pepper, $\frac{1}{4}$ lb.,	55	14
Vinegar, $1\frac{1}{2}$ gals.,	27	40
Eggs, 25 doz.,	28	7 00
General vegetables,	—	6 00
Fruit,	—	4 00
Coal, 3 tons,	11 50	34 50
Wood, 1 cord,	11 00	11 00
Light,	—	20 00
Books,	—	\$8 00
Papers,	—	6 00
Clothing, 4,	\$28 00	112 00
Total,	—	\$808 27

Here follow figures of the actual earnings and expenditures of certain American workingmen, to whom direct application therefor was made, and who furnished them from their own account books, regularly kept and into which was entered, day by day each day's income and expenditures:—

No 1, OF SALEM. WAGES AT \$3 A WORKING DAY, FOR THE YEAR 1870.					
January,	.	.	.	\$31 75	<i>Brought up,</i> . . . \$326 20
February,	.	.	.	4 50	
March,	.	.	.	50 25	August, . . . 55 50
April,	.	.	.	59 25	September, . . . 70 50
May,	.	.	.	67 50	October, . . . 51 00
June,	.	.	.	72 45	November, . . . 36 45
July,	.	.	.	40 50	December, . . . 8 55
<i>Carried up,</i>	.	.	.	\$326 20	Total, . . . \$548 20

His expenses were as follows—he always paying cash for every article purchased:—

Groceries, . . .	\$146 36	<i>Brought up,</i> . . .	\$601 00
Provisions, . . .	158 63		
Clothing, . . .	91 16	Sickness, . . .	13 17
Rent, . . .	150 00	Education, . . .	0 00
Fuel, . . .	28 35	Church, . . .	12 00
Light, . . .	13 50	Charity, . . .	10 00
Furniture, . . .	5 00	Recreation, . . .	0 00
Newspapers, . . .	8 00	Incidentals, . . .	12 25
	<hr/>		<hr/>
<i>Carried up,</i> . . .	\$601 00		\$648 42

Making a total of \$648.42, against \$548.20 of income; or a loss of \$100.22. [This family consists of father, 56 years old, mother, 52, and one daughter 19 years of age. The dresses of the family are made by themselves, and they do their own house-work. The father maintaining the family, is well known to me from boyhood, is an excellent man, in every respect, industrious, temperate to entire abstinence, and respected by everybody. He is a house carpenter by trade.—H. K. O.]

Let us examine these figures a little. It seems that, in February and December, he had but little work, business being dull. During the other ten months, he earned \$535.15; or an average of \$53.51 a month. Allowing this to each of the other two months, instead of what he earned in those months, it would have added \$107.02 to his year's earnings, making them \$642.17, not enough to pay his year's expenditures by \$6.25. His real loss of \$100.22, he made up, as he told us, by taking it from savings of previous years.

NO. 2, A HOUSE CARPENTER, AN AMERICAN, ALSO OF SALEM.

Mr. J. A. A. Family, parents and two children. Father 40 years old, mother 43, children 11 and 8, in 1870. [Mr. A. well known to me, is also a man of the very best character in all respects. He has always kept his accounts of earnings and expenses with great exactness, and the given figures are taken from his account books.—H. K. O.] They are for the years 1856, '57, '58, '59, '68, '69, '70, and 1871. For the years 1856 and 1868, we take the family supplies in detail—for

the other years we give his earnings and expenses in aggregate:—

	Earnings.	Expenses.	Gains.	Losses.
1856,.	\$545 75	\$403 59	\$142 16	—
1857,.	538 00	465 41	72 59	—
1858,.	513 16	475 17	37 99	—
1859,.	531 55	530 75	80	—
1868,.	679 51	824 26	—	\$144 75
1869,.	729 50	821 11	—	91 61
1870,.	735 50	794 04	—	58 54
1871,.	720 56	793 79	—	73 23

His books, from 1860 to 1868 he did not preserve. To our questions he replied that he never uses ardent spirits, and is a member of two Temperance Societies; smokes occasionally; is a member of societies for relief in sickness, and for mental improvement; enjoys good health, and pays cash always for all expenses.

Let us examine his figures. They are for 8 years. During this time he earned \$4,993.53, and he expended \$5,108.12, showing a loss of \$114.59.

For the years 1856 and 1868, he has given the details of his expenditures. They are as follows:—

FOR 1856; SELF AND WIFE; NO CHILDREN; WAGES, \$1.75 A DAY.				
Groceries,	\$63 64	Brought up,	\$315 43	
Provisions,	75 48	Recreation and travel,	51 80	
Clothing,	72 68	Religion,	7 63	
Rent,	75 00	Societies,	65	
Fuel,	5 27	Sundries,	24 52	
Light,	3 56	Sickness,	3 56	
Furniture,	8 50			
Education,	4 84	Total,	\$403 59	
Newspapers,	6 46	Earnings,	544 75	
Carried up,	\$315 43	Gain,	\$141 16	

FOR 1868; SELF, WIFE AND TWO CHILDREN; WAGES, \$2.25 A DAY.

Rent,	\$102 00	Brought up,	\$475 31
Flour,	69 25	Boots and shoes,	32 59
Sugar,	28 08	Clothing,	101 64
Coffee,	2 85	Fuel,	39 62
Tea,	5 97	Tobacco,	15 78
Milk,	26 27	Travel, recreation and	
Butter,	52 80	lectures,	27 19
Molasses,	15 34	Book and newspapers,	18 23
Oil,	7 82	Sickness,	62 99
Lard,	7 81	Religion and Charity,	16 00
Soap,	3 16	Societies,	6 35
Other groceries,	48 76	Furniture,	6 98
Vegetables,	9 89	Sundries,	21 58
Beans,	12 82		
Fruit,	18 96	Total,	\$824 26
Meats and fish,	63 53	Earnings,	679 51
Carried up,	\$475 31	Loss,	\$144 75

If we throw out of this account the items of tobacco, travel and recreation, fruit, books and newspapers, religion and charity, and societies,—which rigid economists might regard as superfluities,—they amounting to \$102.51, his loss would have been reduced to \$42.24. And this could be reduced still farther by nippings elsewhere. But the character of the man, as illustrated by his being a reader, by journeying, recreation and lectures, and his belonging to societies, by his careful keeping of his accounts, shows that *education* has exerted its influence upon him,—that culture and refinement, in some degree, have rendered his real and rightful needs somewhat more importunate, and both he, and others like him,—and there are many such, and we wish their numbers were legion,—are, and under a just system which regards men as men and not as money-machines, ought to be, entitled to a better measure of wage-earnings.

There is, certainly, a noticeable coincidence between the several footings of the annual expenses of the families we have instanced. Those derived from our former Reports are at an average of \$708.89. Example No. 1, on p. 520, gives \$648.42 for a family of *three*, only. Were the family four in number, it would certainly increase the expense to at least the first named amount of \$708.89. Example No. 2, on this page, gives

for the years when the family consisted of four persons, an average expenditure of \$808.40; ranging from \$793.79 to \$824.26. It certainly looks as though at least \$700, with very rigid economy, were necessary to the comfortable support of a family of four (4) persons, with a saving of nothing.

Now looking at Cotton Factory operatives, we find that the average earnings of a Mule Spinner are \$559, for 52 weeks; of a Picker Tender, a little less; of a Weaver, \$403; of a Dresser, \$652.60; of a Grinder, \$473.20. In Woolen Factories, the earnings are less. Plainly then, wives and children must help out the earnings, or these families must live with a more denying economy, or the father become saddled with debt.

By Table 1, on p. 443, of our Second Report (Sen. Doc. No. 50, 1871, it appears that the average annual earnings of the persons therein mentioned, (including the Contractor, No. 28, p. 442, and several others whose earnings exceed \$1,000), were \$752.96. These were all skilled workmen; the lowest earning, \$300 (p. 441), and the highest \$1,500 (p. 442). Their average annual expenses were \$719.88, each, with an average family of about 4 persons. This shows an annual average gain of about \$33; or with 300* working days to the year, a daily average earning of \$2.51, and a daily average expenditure on each of the 365 days of the year, of \$1.97.

Now these must be intelligent men; and the fact that they have kept accounts of receipts and expenses, shows them to be measurably educated, thoughtful, and prudent. It is fair, also, to credit them with temperance and frugality; and yet the result of a year's industry is a saving of less than \$40, each, on the average.

Now with this annual saving of, say, \$33, how many years of labor, uninterrupted by any cause whatever, or for any purpose whatever, will be necessary for one of these to attain to such competence as may be represented by a principal in money invested, that will yield him, by its interest, what he was able to acquire, by his labor, in each of his working years? It seems but reasonably fair that he, with his frugal and well disciplined manual industry, should, as well as the capitalist, with his earnest, judicious and well disciplined

* Most of the Workmen named in these Tables are in-door workers; and 300 days, a year, may be taken as their labor days, to 260 of out-door laborers.

business industry, be able to “retire,” each with what is to each, a competence for their several manner of life and social position. In how many years, then, will he be able to acquire this competence, by storing away at compound interest, each year, his yearly saving of \$33? A simple calculation shows that in order for him to receive \$752.96, each year, he must accumulate a principal of \$12,666 at 6 per cent. or, of \$10,857 at 7 per cent. Now it will take about 54 years for \$33, with continued addition of itself and accumulated interest, each year, to amount to \$12,666, reckoning the interest at 6 per cent.; or, very nearly 47 years to amount to \$10,857, reckoning the interest at 7 per cent. But to accomplish these savings, it requires that the workmen shall not only not fail of permanent work, but that he shall himself be *able* to work continuously, without hindrance from any cause whatever, sickness or other, and that his earnings and family expenses shall always bear a fixed ratio to each other. In fact, that each and every year he shall be sure of his savings of \$33, at least, and that he shall live all the intermediate years. Now at 21 years of age, a man’s chance is good for about 42 years more; that is, he may live to be 63 years old. Now the 54 years required for \$33 to reach \$12,666, at 6 per cent., will make him 75 years of age, and the probability is that he will have been dead 12 years; and the 47 years required for \$33 to reach \$10,857, at 7 per cent., will make him 68 years, and the probability is, that he will have been dead 5 years. If he die, of course his family will receive such amount as his \$33 shall have reached up to the time of his death.

These considerations suggest the important subject of Life Insurance, as a means of benefiting the workman’s family in case of his death. It is not our function to enter at large upon such details; and we content ourselves with merely saying that small investments in Life Policies will result in great and material aid to a family after the death of its natural protector and support. The sum of about \$18, annually paid, purchasing a policy of \$1,000;—that of \$72, securing a policy of \$4,000;—and so in proportion. This subject is too important to be overlooked, by persons of small means and of small savings.

Average Weekly and Annual Expenses from actual returns of certain classes of Workmen in the United States in 1869, with their Average Weekly and Annual Total Expenses for all articles specified, taken from tables by E. Young, Department of Interior.

ARTICLES.	Average Price.	Parents and					Parents and five children.	Weekly Average.	Yearly Average.
		one child.	two children.	three children.	four children.	Parents and four children.			
Bread and Flour,	\$9 50	\$0 78	\$0 85	\$0 95	\$1 29	\$1 38	\$1 05	\$54 60	
Meats, per pound,	15	1 60	1 75	1 92	2 21	3 09	2 12	110 24	
Lard,	21	33	38	40	44	50	41	21 32	
Butter,	38	71	82	1 10	1 26	1 35	1 05	54 60	
Cheese,	24	12	14	16	20	26	18	9 36	
Sugar,	15 }	74	92	1 07	1 20	1 30	1 05	54 60	
Molasses,	1 03 }								
Milk,	09	41	44	48	50	58	48	24 96	
Coffee, roasted,	35	20	23	32	34	36	29	15 08	
Tea,	1 40	23	38	39	46	57	41	21 32	
Fish, fresh and salt,	13	13	25	28	28	30	25	13 00	
Soap,	11 }	17	19	22	25	27	22	11 44	
Starch,	16 }								
Salt, Pepper and Vinegar,	-	09	09	12	12	18	12	6 24	
Eggs, per dozen,	29	21	25	29	32	36	29	15 08	
Potatoes, &c., per bushel,	75	44	61	67	73	80	65	33 80	
Fruits,	-	28	21	42	46	27	33	17 16	
Fuel, { Coal,	10 80 }								
{ Hard Wood,	4 98 }	96	99	1 09	1 20	1 13	1 07	55 64	
Lights, Oil, per gallon,	65	22	25	23	23	19	23	11 96	
Other articles,	-	54	21	21	20	35	30	15 60	
Spirits, Beer and Tobacco,	-	23	02	13	35	47	24	12 48	
Rent, per month,	10 50	2 50	2 50	2 75	2 75	2 75	2 65	137 80	
Totals,	-	\$10 89	\$11 48	\$13 20	\$14 79	\$16 46	\$13 44	\$696 28	

It will be observed in examining these figures that nothing is giving for clothing. The expense varies very greatly ; but an average, taken from 61 families consisting of 281 persons, say $4\frac{1}{2}$ persons to a family, expending \$5,584, for clothing in 1869, gives about \$20 to each person, per year ; which would increase the above annual average expense by about \$90 more, or to \$786.28, being \$15.12 a week.

Referring now to our First Report, at p. 407, we find the yearly expense of a family there given to be . . .	\$701 20
In our Second Report, page 443, it was, . . .	719 88
“ “ “ “ 445, “ . . .	732 81
“ “ “ “ 446, “ . . .	694 16
“ “ “ “ 447, “ . . .	696 40
<hr/>	
Total from the 5 Tables,	\$3,544 45
Average of each family,	708 89

which appears to be the cost of supporting a family of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ persons for one year, in 1869 and 1870, as by our figures.

Now at p. 407, First Report, we find the average yearly earnings to be,	\$683 59
In our Second Report, page 443, to be,	752 96
“ “ “ “ 446, “	812 02
“ “ “ “ 447, “	822 95
<hr/>	
Total,	\$3,071 52
Average,	\$767 88
Deduct above yearly expenses,	708 89
<hr/>	
And we have,	\$56 99

as the average savings possible for such workmen as are there specified, whose labor is not interrupted for any cause, sanitary or recreative ; and whose regularity and continuity of employment enabled them to meet a regularity of expenditure, with so sharp definiteness of economy, as to insure a balance in their favor. Commencing at 21 years of the party's age and put aside, without fail, year by year, when would this saving, at compound interest, amount to a competence ? In this case of \$56 99 it will be found that accumulating at six (6) per cent. it will, in

43 years, amount to \$10,688.07; and accumulating at seven (7) per cent. it will, in 40 years, amount to \$10,378.91—which invested would yield a yearly income of \$600 or \$700, as the case might be. But at 21 years of age, a man's chance of living is good for 42 years longer; so that death would probably overtake him in the first instance before he achieved his competence.

On page 320, the average deposits of the working classes are \$20.92,—\$75.05, and \$186.62. With the element of the probability of life at 21 years of age, (that being 42 years), how many years would it require for each of these sums to amount to a principal that would yield \$600, a year, at six per cent.; or \$700, at seven per cent? Such principal must be \$10,000—and the question, therefore, is, in how many years will each of the above sums, saved each year and accumulating at compound interest, amount to \$10,000—at six, or at seven per cent? The operation results as per Table following:—

Saving \$21.92 will in 58 years at 6 per cent. amount to,	.	\$10,350 46
“ 21.92 “ 52 “ 7 “ “	.	10,247 73

A man's chance of life at 21 years of age is good for 42 years longer—bringing him up to 63 years of age. But as it will take him 58 and 52 years above his 21 years, to accumulate the above amounts, making him in the one case 79, and in the other 73 years old, he has small chance of securing this competence, or of enjoying its interest, for he will have been dead 10 or 16 years.

Let us now take the case of the person whose average deposits, per year, are \$75.05.

\$75 05 will, in 38 years, at 6 per cent. amount to,	.	.	\$10,167 60
\$75.05 “ 35 “ 7 “ “	.	.	10,674 94

As before said, a man's chance of life at 21 years of age, will take him up to 63 years. Therefore, if at 21 years of age, he puts by and invests, for every succeeding year, for 38 years, at six per cent. or for 35 years at seven per cent., he will have accumulated a principal, on the interest of which he can subsist during the remaining four or seven years that he has a chance of living—all the better if he lives longer. The third case is that of the man who saves and invests, every year, \$186.62. Now,

\$186.62 will, in 25 years, at 6 per cent. amount to	.	.	\$10,238 72
\$186.62 " 24 " 7 " "	.	.	10,866 99

This case is much more favorable. With the man's chance of living to 63 years of age, and the more rapid accumulation of the larger savings, it is a very great improvement over the other two,—showing that, at about 46 years of age, he may enter upon the use of his interest, or if he continues to labor, since he is at that age in full vigor, he may accumulate still more. Should he continue to do so up to 55 years of age, then, at six per cent., he will be worth \$19,442.82; and at seven per cent., \$23,935.88, with a chance of enjoying its income for 8 years;—and many more, if good morals and habits have been his guides and assistants.

REVIEW.

We proceed now, to an examination of the actual condition of the majority of wage laborers in this State.

The following Table is compiled from the preceding Tables of wages and earnings. The actual wages and earnings were obtained by dividing the total wages paid in any given employment by the average number employed; then obtaining the ratio of men, women, young persons, and children, and the ratio of the wages paid to each class of employés, and multiplying the product by the number of actual days worked in the year, thus getting the actual earnings.

Table of Actual Wages and Earnings in Principal Employments.

No. of Table.	OCCUPATION.	Hours of Labor, per Week.	No. of days' work past year.	ACTUAL WAGES PER DAY.				ACTUAL EARNINGS PAST YEAR.				Total No. Em- ployed, as re- turned.
				Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	
-	<i>Class 1.</i> Farm Laborers, . . .	60	208	\$1 73	\$1 02	\$1 03	\$0 64	\$359 84	\$212 16	\$214 24	\$133 12	-
-	<i>Class 2.</i> Fisheries, . . .	-	200	-	-	-	-	574 00 ¹	-	-	-	-
-	Land Travel, etc., . .	71	300	2 13 ¹	-	-	-	639 00	-	-	-	2,464
-	Water Travel, etc., . .	-	260	1 84 ¹	-	-	-	478 40	-	-	-	-
-	<i>Class 3.</i> Domestics, . . .	-	313	-	1 53 ¹	-	-	-	479 44 ³	-	-	1,557
-	Saleswomen, etc., . .	60	267	-	1 13 ¹	-	-	-	303 04	-	-	1,096
-	Saloon, . . .	72	300	-	1 33 ¹	-	-	-	401 00 ³	-	-	174
-	Manufactories, . . .	60	150	-	1 05 ¹	-	-	-	161 47	-	-	27,751
-	Fancy Articles, . . .	60	195	-	1 10 ¹	-	-	-	189 26	-	-	903
1	<i>Class 4.</i> Boots and Shoes, . . .	59	251	2 30	94	85	-	577 30	235 94	213 35	-	4,886
2	Miscellaneous Apparel, . .	61	254	2 33	98	72	53	591 82	248 92	182 88	134 62	857
3	Chemicals, . . .	62	283	1 94	-	1 00	-	549 02	-	283 00	-	306
4	Food, etc., . . .	61	275	2 71	1 18	1 08	65	745 25	324 50	297 00	178 75	413
5	Minerals, . . .	62	250	2 58	-	1 28	-	645 00	-	320 00	-	721
6	Fancy Articles, . . .	60	285	2 32	1 04	1 07	72	661 20	296 40	304 95	205 20	330
7	Hides and Leather, . . .	59	276	2 35	97	1 31	-	648 60	267 72	361 56	-	560
8	Paper, . . .	62	277	2 18	1 01	96	87	603 86	279 77	265 92	240 99	1,105

	Printing, etc.,	.	.	.	58	294	\$3 31 ¹	\$1 56	\$1 20	-	\$973 14	\$458 64	\$352 80	\$159 04	-	428
9 ²	Cottons,	66	284	1 87	1 07	95	\$0 56	531 08	307 88	269 80	120 12	-	14,786
10	Miscellaneous Textile Fabrics,	.	.	.	62	273	1 83	1 95	81	44	499 59	259 35	221 13	181 12	-	2,415
11	Woolens,	66	283	1 62	1 12	94	64	458 46	316 96	266 02	181 12	-	5,441
<i>Class 5.</i>																
12	Building,	60	255	2 45	-	1 14	-	624 75	-	290 20	-	-	808
13	Furniture,	59	278	2 68	-	99	-	745 04	-	275 22	-	-	1,104
14	Implement,	58	263	2 33 ¹	-	1 11	-	612 79	-	291 93	-	-	1,499
15	Machinery,	58	272	2 62	1 70	1 30	-	712 64	462 40	353 60	-	-	2,547
16	Foundries,	59	292	1 88	-	55	-	548 96	-	160 60	-	-	1,047
17	Metal Miscellaneous,	.	.	.	59	275	2 28	1 14	64	40	627 00	313 50	176 00	110 00	-	812
18	Vehicles,	60	293	2 20	-	1 05	-	644 60	-	307 65	-	-	252
19	Wood Work,	61	270	2 32	-	1 32	-	616 40	-	356 40	-	-	714
20	Miscellaneous,	.	.	.	61	262	2 35	1 26	1 09	61	615 70	330 12	285 58	159 82	-	688

Totals and Averages.

Average hours of labor, per week,	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	Average actual earnings, per year, of men, .	.	\$611 33
" number of days' work past year,	264 $\frac{1}{2}$	" actual earnings, per year, of women, .	.	299 43
" actual wages, per day, of men,	\$2 24	" actual earnings, per year, of young persons,	.	274 96
" actual wages, per day, of women,	1 16	" actual earnings, per year, of children, .	.	162 27
" actual wages, per day, of young persons,	1 01	Total number employed, in the returns made, .	.	75,664
" actual wages, per day, of children,	60			

¹ The wages and earnings given in these employments, are *average*, not *actual*.

² This does not include the salary of a Lithographer given in Table, but it does include the wages of an Electrotyper, and this brings the average wages higher than the facts would warrant.

³ Price of board included.

By this Table, it will be seen, that the average earnings of a majority of the skilled laborers in this State, do not reach the average cost of the necessities of life, given in the cost of living, table, pages 254 and 255 ; or, to state in another way, the majority of wage laborers must consume less of groceries, provisions, light, fuel, rent and clothing, than is given as the actual consumption of workmen whose items of expenses we have tabulated to keep out of debt.

We have no sufficient data from which to compute the average number of persons in a workman's family, and we have taken four (4) as that average, though thousands of families consist of a higher number.

To live within the average earnings of \$611.00 a family of five (5) or six (6) persons must not consume more than the amount given in our average family of four (4). Now, from its impossibility, the children of the poor are taken away early from school, and brought into the labor market ;—the son to the factory, store or shop, and the daughter to the life and wages of a factory or cash girl, or of a serving woman.

By an examination of the cost of living table, the average cost of the necessities of life for a family of four persons, is \$644.40, divided as follows :—

Groceries,	\$158 00
Provisions,	161 52
Clothing,	105 04
Rent,	114 00
Fuel,	42 16
Light,	6 96
Sundries,	56 72
								<hr/>
Total,	\$644 40

In addition to these articles are the following :—

Furniture,	\$27 52
Books, Newspapers, Stationery, etc.,	17 42
School-books, etc , \$5.74, Religion, \$21.32,	27 06
Sickness, \$24.08, Recreation, \$19.52,	43 60
Charity, \$7.68, Societies, \$9.12,	16 80
							<hr/>
							132 40
							<hr/>
Making the whole expenses,	\$776 86

In addition to this method of obtaining items of cost from workmen, we consulted many store-keepers and ascertained the quantities of articles commonly consumed by an average family of four (4) persons, and their figures substantiate those given in our tables.

It will also be seen by reference to the table of annual expenses, page 526, prepared by Edward Young,—Bureau of Statistics,—Washington, D. C., that it costs a family of four (4) persons \$596.96, for groceries, provisions, fuel, light and rent. Adding \$80.00, for clothing, would increase the sum to \$676.96.

The average wage-laborer, receiving \$611.00 per year, must reduce the cost of the items first named, \$33.40, to pay his bills and commence the next year free from debt. And, but for the item of sundries, \$56.72, it would appear that he could do this. But to this class of workmen this heading comprises items as important, as a library to the student. This small sum of about \$1.00 a week, is the evidence of growth above the low condition of the European laborer. This heading, in many cases, covers all moneys expended for the few articles that our community demand ;—such as boot and tooth brushes, blacking, hair cutting, dentistry ; as well as pocket knife for the husband, scissors for the wife, and a few toys for the children, the little Christmas presents, and occasional excursions, and, in some cases, travel in horse cars. To obtain these, with the average yearly earnings of \$611.00, requires a sacrifice of other necessities, as well as the denial of needed recreation, the impulse of charity, or the cultivation of the mind and spiritual faculties by attendance upon lectures, or the observance of some form of worship ; the purchase of much desired articles of furniture—a parlor or chamber set ; or the almost indispensable sewing-machine ; and, latterly, the growing want of musical facilities. These, under existing circumstances, must be counted luxuries, beyond the grasp of the hard-working, industrious, temperate, skilled, average wealth-producer.

There are many mechanics in our State and Country, able to secure somewhat of these so-called luxuries ; and to this fact, we owe our superior manner of living as a people. The statistics of the cost of living we have presented, were mostly derived from 112 of this class of workmen, and the constant influence of the present better distribution of wealth, education and political

power in our country, above that of any other, is manifest in their experience. It is because of this upward tendency, that the complaint of labor is heard from the skilled, instead of the unskilled workman ; of the better paid labor of Massachusetts and New England, rather than of the lower paid labor of many other states and nations. The Hon. G. F. Hoar stated it rightly, when he attributed the uneasiness of the masses to the power and influence of our educational and governmental systems. Time was, when the art of reading and writing had been acquired by very few. Here, in Massachusetts, it is widely distributed, and this distribution has made our wealth of knowledge the common wealth ;—not by limiting the advance of the learned, but, by its more equitable distribution, stimulating the higher schools of literature and art to more rapid and perfect development. So, also, the distribution of political power, once held by kings and nobles, has not only not introduced anarchy, but has advanced nations in their growth, strength and power, and rendered governments of the people, by the consent of the people, safer than governments by the few. The distribution of wealth has also been going on, and although extreme wealth and extreme poverty are, to-day, the great curses of the world, there is a better distribution than ever before, counting time by centuries, not by years.

In civilized countries, famine,—once the gaunt fear of labor,—is now almost unknown. Famine, as a pestilence, is no longer a reality, though every industrious workman feels that he is near to want.

The contrast between the laborer of 300 years ago and the laborer of the present day, is but the prophecy of the advance yet to be made. There are more people removed a week from want than ever before ; more people better housed, better fed, and better clothed ; though there is but little advance in the *margin* of wage ; and wages being continually kept down to the actual cost of living, the element of advance is to be found, almost entirely, in the superiority of their style of life. Of the tens of thousands of unskilled laborers, other than those of the farm, we have no statistics ; but enough is known, to say that their day's wages are lower, their earnings less, and, generally, their season of work shorter, than that of skilled laborers. Their homes are in the tenement-houses, such as we have described, or in the small

cottages (shanties is a better name), such as may be found, by hundreds on the marshy and low lands of Boston and vicinity, and of many large towns. These homes of the poor, both in their surroundings and interior accommodations, are but miserable places. Poverty is everywhere apparent;—and about its haunts are no gravel walks, no arch of overhanging trees, no well-paved streets, no grassy parks for children's play-ground. In their place are pools of stagnant water, filthy alleys, and back-yards full of mire, mud, and disease-breeding filth.

Into the homes of these poor, we have been always welcomed. We have taken an inventory of the furniture, and asked questions relating to earnings and cost of living, and have always received the freest and politest answers.

We have alluded to the homes of the unskilled laborers, in this place, to call attention to the limited demand for the products of our manufactories. These homes have no parlor with carpeted floor, easy chairs, or pictured walls. The furnishing of the living room and bed-chamber, is all the demand they can make upon a market full of the articles of use and ornament; and even this demand cannot reach the best, but must take the goods of the junk and second-hand trader, while their clothing are the cleansed and mended cast-off garments of the second-hand dealer.

Here is a market for the utmost production;—a market at our doors,—waiting only to be opened by a better distribution of wealth; a distribution so natural and permanent, that the increase of means shall increase wants, increase demand and increase supply,—the causes continually operating,—until extreme poverty and extreme wealth shall no longer have existence. But, against this Christianizing and economic effort, the cry for *cheap labor* is raised.

Said one of the richest merchants of Boston,—“What we want is cheap labor; then we can compete with England, in the production of commodities; then Central and South America, the Provinces, and some parts of Europe, would be open to our trade and commerce; and we should, be a wealthy and prosperous people. How wide would be the distribution of this wealth, this prosperity and this happiness!”

Such is the representative opinion of many educated men—men of wealth, culture and influence, in narrowness of thought

calling for cheap labor and a market for goods. Do they not forget that cheap labor—like slave labor—narrows the channels of industry? That a free people are greater and better consumers than a slave people? That a cheap people are dearest, for, though they produce cheaply, their power of demanding and consuming such production is less, in the same, or even in a greater degree?

Cheap labor means China, with her millions of poor, with her stunted growth and inferior race. Dear labor means America, with her free and intelligent citizens. For poor as are our laborers, they are better off than the laborers of any other country. *Here we have the highest wages and the best market in the world*; a market not only for the products of the farm, the textile factory, and the builder, but a market for the thousand varied productions of New England, books, newspapers, and *Yankee notions*;—very properly so named, for many of them were for years unknown to every other wage-labor people.

If cheap labor is the great demand of the age, let capital seek employment in those populous countries where men are cheaper than cattle; where common schools, the elective franchise and the right to be elected to office, and the Sabbath, are all unknown.

Such advice as this would be characterized as folly; and yet, is it not the legitimate result of the argument for cheap labor?

Our railroads are built, because so many can afford to ride. Books and newspapers are multiplied, because so many can afford to read. Industry prospers, because so many can afford to buy. To make the working classes better producers, they must be better consumers; but, as long as the history of the wage-laborer is the history of the poor, so long will industrial stagnations, and financial irregularities, and their natural results,—theft, intemperance, prostitution, and war,—be the regularly recurring events, and degradation be the miserable condition of masses of the people.

How to make the laborer dearer, without increasing the cost of production, is the problem this nation is called upon to solve. Enough has been done for production; something must now be done for distribution;—not the agrarian distribution of wealth by artificial or violent processes, but by those natural laws that

have already distributed the present wealth of the people among so many.

All that can be done to remove the obstructions to the working of these natural laws, should be done, and done at once. But the great difficulty is the poverty of the people. If the people were not poor, they would not work for wages; but they are so poor and ignorant that they cannot and know not how to coöperate. The education they need, is such as will teach them how to increase the purchasing power of a day's work; the education going on, until they know enough and earn enough to work for themselves and each other, and so naturally acquire the knowledge and power necessary to coöperate. To accomplish such education we must remodel our existing system,—a system which the demands of the times have outstripped, and whose supporters, if they resist these demands, must be told to move out of the way, or move forward in the march of the education demanded; an education moral, mental and manual, operating upon all ranks of society, reaching clean up, clean down and clean through the whole social organization, and preparing every child of the Commonwealth to meet and master every possibility of every condition into which he may be thrown.

It is not our purpose, at this time, to enter upon the subject of coöperation. We leave that for another Report, but enough has been presented in the Reports we have submitted, to prove that the average wage-laborer's margin over and above expenses, is not sufficient to enable him to compete with capital, in its present aggregated form, or to contend with the power which such aggregation gives.

Coöperation will come as a natural result of the distribution of wealth, education and power;—such as is now in process of development.

In this country, we have the distribution of political power among men only; it will and must be still further distributed, making no exception of sex, as it has made none of color. The distribution of education, through the common school system must be made more free, opening all the higher branches and higher schools of art and science to all. The distribution of wealth, through the wage-system, has given the working classes all the wealth they now possess, whatever that may be.

Its better distribution must come through, and by the processes that increase wages without increasing profits upon labor, giving labor larger and capital smaller margins; this process of distribution continuing, until the better system of distribution, through coöperation, shall succeed the wage-system, as the wage-system succeeded villeinage

How this can be done must be more fully treated in a future Report.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

The Bureau was organized as much for the purpose of investigation and the presentation of Statistics, as for the recommendation of special legislation; and as we have often been asked by legislators and others, what effect has been produced by the publication of these facts, and also what conclusions can be drawn from these researches, we give a brief summary of some of the most marked effects to which our attention has been called, and such conclusions as we think can be fairly drawn.

Our exposure of Tenement-Houses has excited a deep and effective interest in the real condition of the homes of low paid laborers, and led the way to means of relief and perhaps of remedy.

Attention has been drawn to the fact that large numbers of children in the State are unschooled, and a general demand has arisen for an effective, compulsory law and its enforcement. In addition to this, Half-Time Schools are becoming better understood and appreciated.

We think, that the history of wage-labor, and wage-laborers, which we have presented, proves that the great body of working people—from the date of the organization of wage-labor, has only kept along on a general level with their earnings—they however, barely paying their way, and being oftener in debt than out of debt;

That those who perform the severest labor, and work the greatest number of hours, are the lowest paid—always have been—and under existing systems, must so continue to be, they embodying that class, which, from the necessity of inadequate wage, must commence labor at so early a period of life as to be deprived of a fair degree of education, and must, therefore, be

perpetuated as the ignorant class, from which springs the "*dangerous class*" in every nation, and which, spite of our educational advantages, already exists here, especially in our large municipalities ;

That Poverty—by which we mean inability to subsist for any considerable period of time beyond the discontinuance, for any cause, of regular wage-labor, always has been, and is, the normal condition of wage-laborers, and that therefore the historic method of wage-labor—or that system, by which, in all time heretofore, the most work has been obtained for the least wage, is radically erroneous, and should be changed for one more just and more equitable in its distribution of the wealth produced by labor ;

That a reduction of wages has not followed a reduction of time, but on the contrary wages have increased with reduced hours ; nor has a proportionate reduction of product followed a reduction of time ;

That the increase of the deposits in Savings Banks, is not an evidence of the increased means of the working classes, but that, on the contrary, the instances into which we have been able to examine, prove that the greatest *amount* of deposits is not the deposits of wage-laborers ;

That the limited sum placed at the disposal of the Bureau greatly circumscribes its researches, and renders a systematic arrangement of statistics, for an early presentation, utterly impracticable ; that additional means would greatly facilitate our labors, and the classifying of the Reports of this Department among the Public Documents, so called, would secure an earlier presentation of the results of our researches.

We believe that there is very little legislation that can be made to apply, directly, to the solution of the labor problem.

Any and all legislation that tends to make men better, or more valuable, is in favor of labor. Legislation in the interest of production, solely, is not in favor of labor.

Any legislation giving additional power to capital, is against labor.

Capital has the necessary power and knowledge to take care of itself.

Labor is poor, ignorant, and powerless. To give labor more

means, more education, and more power,—power meaning educated power, or wisdom,—special legislation will be necessary; and as time is money, education and power, this special legislation must be in the direction of more time for the laborer;—this additional leisure for the masses to be followed by increased educational facilities.

We therefore recommend that the Commonwealth, in its employing capacity, adopt the example set by the United States, and by some of the individual States, of abridging the labor-day for all manual laborers in her employ, either by contract or otherwise, so that the experiment may be tried, at public expense, whether a reduction of hours is, or is not, an increase of wages. We further recommend that a law be enacted, similar to the Factory Law of Great Britain, limiting the hours of labor in all manufacturing, mechanical, or other establishments in the State, to ten (10) hours in any one day, or 60 hours in any week; and that no child, under 13 years of age, shall be employed in any such establishment;—nor at that age, unless such child has received the elements of a common school education, and shall be physically qualified for such labor;—age, education, and physical condition to be matters of due certificate provided for by law; and further, that all children, between 13 and 15 years of age, so employed, shall not be employed more than 5 hours in any one day;—said hours to be between 6 o'clock in the forenoon and 6 o'clock in the afternoon;—and that they shall attend school, vacations excepted, 3 hours on each and every day; the same law to compel protection against accidents by unguarded belting, machinery, elevators, or hoist-ways; this law to be enforced by specially appointed inspectors, who shall have power to enter the premises of any establishment when in operation, to make research and to enforce the law.

We further recommend the establishment of a system of Half Time Schools or Half Time Classes for such children, between the ages of 10 and 15 years, as are unable, from any cause, to attend full time schools. And lastly, we recommend,

The authorization by law, with methods of carrying it into effect, of a thorough and exhaustive system of statistics, to be gathered by the parties employed in taking the next State census, in 1875, covering the subjects of the wages, earnings

and savings, of time employed and lost, of all classes of working people, the number of persons (men, women, young persons and children), employed in the several industrial occupations in the Commonwealth, and of all other matters connected with the subject of labor in the State.

HENRY K. OLIVER, *Chief.*

GEO. E. McNEILL, *Deputy.*

APPENDIX:

CONTAINING STATEMENTS BY FRANCIS DODGE, OF DANVERS, CONCERNING AGRICULTURE; BY EDWARD KING, OF BOSTON, ON COÖPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS IN GERMANY; BY N. T. ALLEN, OF WEST NEWTON, ON SCHOOLS VISITED BY HIM IN GERMANY AND OTHER PARTS OF EUROPE; BY PAUL LIPTAY, OF HUNGARY, ON LABORERS IN PESTH; AND ABSTRACTS FROM PARLIAMENTARY COMMISSIONS ON THE TRUCK SYSTEM, IN ENGLAND;

AND

INDEX TO REPORT AND APPENDIX.

TESTIMONY OF FRANCIS DODGE, FARMER, OF DANVERS,
ESSEX COUNTY, MASS.

My business is farming. I was brought up upon a farm, and have followed the occupation of a farmer for thirty-six years. My farm contains about 100 acres—with 40 acres under cultivation, and 60 in pasture. I have, besides, some outlying wood and meadow lands. My staple crops are fruit and milk. Formerly, I raised the common crops of corn, potatoes and hay. At the present time, I am engaged chiefly in market gardening. I never raise Indian corn now, because it is cheaper to buy it.

It has been said, by a writer in the "Ploughman," that corn is a profitable crop in Massachusetts, because the yield, per acre, is greater here than in the Southern and Western States, where the price of it is much lower. But this does not appear to me to be a fair representation of the case, for, though the crops may be greater in Massachusetts, yet the cost of labor and manure here will far more than equal the difference in price. Corn cannot be raised in Essex County, even under favorable circumstances, at less than one dollar a bushel, while it can be bought for about eighty cents a bushel. In this estimate of the cost of raising corn, I consider one-half the manure used to become the sustenance of some succeeding crop. The profits of farming, whatever crops may be raised, are, ordinarily, very small. Sufficient proofs of this assertion might be readily cited—amongst others, I would name the instance of the returns of one of the most favorably situated farms in Essex County. An accurate calculation of the value of returns upon this farm disclosed the fact, that, for twenty years past, it had been only at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and it was said, by one most interested in the farm, that it had done extremely well to yield even that per cent. of profit. Now, this farm is, in my judgment, as capable of yielding a profit as any one in the county. In fact, I do not believe that the farms in the county, or in the State, have averaged so much as that, for the last three or four years.

During the late war, there were a few good years, when every sort of farm produce sold well in the market, and when the cost of labor and manure was not higher than it is now. With this exception, the profits of farming have fallen, continuously, for the

last twenty-five years. Many farmers are now obliged to engage in other occupations, in addition to farming, in order to maintain their families comfortably. One of my neighbors is now at work cutting shoes, and says, that with such work, continuously, he could give up his farm, hire a house, and better support his family. Yet his farm is well suited to market gardening, and highly favorable for early crops, and not distant from good markets.

Statistics show, very clearly, that the farming population, throughout the New England States, is fast diminishing, while that of large villages and cities is increasing. This fact proves, I think, that there is something wrong in the condition of things here, if, as we believe, a Yankee knows where he can best earn a penny. Another proof is the dilapidation of the places situated *between* our villages. Any one having occasion to pass over the county, at large, cannot but observe this dilapidation, where the cities and villages are ten or twelve miles apart. There are good farms in these places, but the young men brought up upon them, have found that they can earn more money in other business, elsewhere, than in farming at home, and they go away to shoemaking, or into stores, and the farms go to decay.

Another thing to be observed, is, that the only labor which can now be easily obtained, is far inferior to that which was common twenty-five years ago. Then we had young men from New Hampshire, Vermont and Maine, who were devoted to farming, and came to earn money for the purpose of securing homesteads of their own. Now, we have mostly foreign laborers, and they are by no means equal to Yankee laborers. They may have the ability to do a given amount of work, but they have not intelligence, and don't do it so well. They want more supervision. They care only for the wages of their labor.

There is another reason, also, for the possible failure even of market gardening. An Irishman will obtain a few acres of land, raise potatoes and onions, and sell them in the markets, in competition with others. Living, as Irishmen do, his expenses will be very much less than those of Yankees, or of any man with much ambition, and so he will really get more from his labor on the land, than they would. Or rather, I should say, as his expenses will be much less than those of a Yankee farmer, the result of his labor will be more profitable in dollars and cents.

It was once said to me, "the farmers' boys, now-a-days, want to dress finely, to be well educated, and to have all the advantages which large villages and cities afford." "Why shouldn't they?" I replied. "If they have any ambition they will of course want

these advantages; and if the farm wont afford them, they will go elsewhere to obtain them. I have one boy in Texas, and another in Indiana. The education they had received had elevated and prepared them for the course they have taken." The tendency of the employment of foreign laborers has been, in general, to drive away native laborers. Our young men are unwilling to associate with foreign laborers, as they must do, if engaged in the same employment, and upon the same farm.

It is thought by some people that the employment of foreign laborers has tended to more skilful and thorough cultivation. Those laborers require more supervision, and, therefore, there may be more carefulness; but I do not think there is any more skill applied to farming now than there was twenty-five years ago. There is more competition now, and that always requires the exercise of intelligence and carefulness.

In Essex County, there are several towns favorably situated, on the sea-shore, where an abundance of sea manure can be easily obtained, in which hay is one of the most profitable crops, and farmers have there made it a specialty in their operations, for many years. In such instances, farming may be said to be profitable; but they by no means represent the common result of farming in the State, or even in this county. Except in such instances, or in the immediate vicinity of large cities, where land is more valuable for building lots than for cultivation, there has been no rise in the market price of farms. Good farms in this county can be bought, to-day, for less than could have been obtained for them, twenty-five years ago. Perhaps, where market-gardening has been remarkably profitable, at the distance, say, of from six to eighteen miles from the cities of the Commonwealth, the price of land may also have risen.

Farmers of the present day can no longer follow the customs and practices of their ancestors. They are obliged to spend more money, and must obtain more money to spend. This they cannot do by raising only corn and potatoes—the crops of former days. They must raise crops that will sell readily, and can be raised at moderate expense. What these crops should be must depend upon the different conditions of farms, in their several localities. We cannot, anywhere, be absolutely sure of raising any crop that will be profitable. We must plant in hope. If our crops prove good and the markets are favorable, we may do well. But the farmer has always to run more or less risk of the failure of his crops, from various causes, which we can neither foresee nor avert. Onions—a staple crop with many farmers in this county—failed the last year

In fact, there was but a very small margin on any product of market-gardening; and on some there was none at all. A man, who is one of the best market-gardeners in the county, and who makes money, if any one does, told me that, if his herbs should not sell well, he didn't think he should pay his expenses for the past two years. A few years ago, when sage was worth 35 cents a pound, this man had two acres of it, and raised about two tons to the acre. Another year, when it could not be sold for more than five or six cents a pound, his large crop was a dead loss. I had two or three acres of squashes, this last summer, but there was no profit on them. I may have received the cost of their cultivation; but nothing more. Year before the last, I had a crop of squashes from three-quarters of an acre, which yielded me \$400. My crop was a very good one,—but my neighbors had none at all.

So with the cabbages. Last year there was no profit in raising them;—in fact, they did not pay the cost of cultivation. But the year before, the crop upon an acre yielded me about \$400. There is, indeed, no certainty about any crops, nor about the market price for them. We can only cultivate in hope of good results from our labor. Last year, I had no apples, which are usually an important crop with me. The difference between my crops of this fruit for the two last years, is, at least, a thousand dollars,—a sum which makes a large hole in a farmer's purse.

I usually hire my help for eight months;—that is for the spring, summer and fall—and for four months for the winter. This is the general custom. I have never but once hired for the year and never shall again.

What effect the use of machinery may have upon farming, I am not able to say. The fact is, farm-wages were never higher than they are now, except during the haying season. I then hire by the month, with the intention of finishing the work of haying within that time. The use of machinery diminishes the labor to be performed on any given piece of land, and so, in the haying season, it reduces the requisite amount of help about one-sixth. I do not know that it produces any other material difference in the number of farm-laborers. Machinery has come into quite general use in Essex County, and whatever real improvement is made in its construction, it finds a ready sale among our farmers. But a great many inventions and so-called improvements are offered for sale, which are of no possible benefit to the practical farmer.

As I have already said, the cost of labor and the want of manure are the present chief drawbacks upon profitable farming. Farmers are obliged to buy whatever manure can be most cheaply and easily

obtained; and the price of it has risen, within twenty-five years, from \$4 a cord, to \$10, and even \$12—an advance of one and a half to two hundred per cent. And so is it with the price of labor. For good help, such as would have been had, twenty-five years ago, for \$10 or \$15 per month, with board, we are now obliged to pay \$25 or \$30 per month.

CO-OPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS IN GERMANY.

By EDWARD KING.*

The origin of coöperative associations in Germany, is modern, dating only from 1849. The first associations which appeared in the midst of the tempests of the preceding year, began to flourish as soon as those storms abated. The political revolution had rendered a social revolution necessary, and it was not long in effecting itself. The first two coöperative associations were what is known as “raw material associations,” founded in 1849, by the shoemakers and cabinet-makers of Delitzsch, the birthplace of Herr Schulze, and Eilenbourg, a little neighboring town, under the auspices of Schulze himself. The principle of *responsibility of all the associates for every obligation of the association*, had been adopted. It was the common law, and none thought of changing it; and it was not long before the superiority of this system was recognized.

Herr Shultze, who had been a judge at Delitzsch, had become gravely compromised in the movement of 1848, against the government, and he lost his official position and was given a little post on the Russian frontier. Finally, he was obliged to quit the magistracy; and, thereafter, consecrated himself entirely to writing, speaking, travelling, editing and uniting workmen wherever he could. He lived only to propagate coöperation, which he regarded and still regards, as the safety of the laboring-classes. In his birthplace, in the month of April, 1850, Herr Schulze succeeded in founding the first credit association. The members of this association made a monthly deposit of 2½ cents, and the advances made by the association to its members, paid from five to ten per cent. interest; but the association was faulty at the bottom; the funds were formed of gifts and gratuities made to the society by benefactors; and general confidence in it was lacking, because the responsibility of the associates had not been proposed as its principle. The operations of this society were of only minor importance; but the pioneers of Delitzsch and Eilenbourg, in their associations for the purchase of raw material, had opened the way. Two friends of

* The Foreign correspondent of the *Boston Journal*, from actual investigation.

Schulze, partaking of his zeal and intelligence, regarding the wants of the laboring classes, founded, during his exile on the Russian frontier, a loan banking association, in 1851, at Eilenbourg; based on the double principle (which it had proclaimed as alone capable of conducting to a happy result), namely, first the formation of a fund by the deposits of each associate, and the exclusion of all outside aid, in whatever form; and second, the responsibility of all the associates for the social obligations.

In 1852, Herr Schulze having quit the service of the State, celebrated his return to his birthplace by the revision of the statutes of this credit association; and these have since become the model of the majority of the others. He but developed the principles which had been already fully established. Instead of the fixed monthly deposit of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents, he substituted deposits, variable according to the desire and means of the associates, establishing only the minimum. In this society, also, all outside aid was excluded and mutual responsibility was adopted. The happy results of this change were felt in the first year. The credit association, or popular bank of Delitzsch, as we shall henceforth call it, presents the following figures of the two years of its existence before its reorganization, '50-'52. It possessed \$172.50 as active capital; \$35 of which were collected by assessments, and did business to the amount of \$165.50; but the number of its members, which was at the beginning 117, by the end of the year 1852, amounted to only 30. At the end of 1853, the active capital had risen to \$1,550.00; the amount of its operations \$6,630.00. That is to say, to ten times more than the united totals of the two preceding years. The number of members who had deposited \$108.75 amounted to 175. At the end of the year, the dividends paid to the associates had been at the rate of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. The number of members increased the following year to 210, and the assessments to \$414.75.

These last figures are conclusive. The minimum of the monthly assessments had been established by Herr Schulze at five cents. This would make 60 cents per year, and for all the associates, together, the sum of \$126.00. But the dividend of the preceding year was heard from. As it was divided in proportion to the amount of the assessments, each associate sought to augment his share of the capital, as much as he could, and in place of \$126.00, it was found that \$414.75 had been collected. The sum is not very large, it is true, if it is to be distributed between 210 persons; but when it is remembered that those persons belonged to the poorest class; that they had for their support only the results of their daily labor, which only provided for absolute necessities, then this sum has

its importance and becomes a serious encouragement. Because of the special interest that has been attached to the Bank of Delitzsch, as the model popular bank, we will here give some statistics, embracing its development up to 1859. According to some authorities, it was in this year that the first epoch of the life of coöperative associations, in Germany, ended.

The Bank of Delitzsch shows the following figures:—

Table of Coöperative Societies of Germany.

Y E A R.	Number of Mem- bers.	Total advances made to mem- bers.	Total credit of associates.	Total monthly deposits in the year.	Total of operat- ing funds.	Reserve fund.
1850-52, .	117*	\$620 25	\$35 25	\$35 25	\$172 50	\$96 75
1853, . .	175	6,330 00	141 25	108 75	1,550 25	151 50
1854, . .	210	11,259 00	594 75	349 75	2,670 00	176 25
1855, . .	256	14,857 50	1,254 75	564 75	3,832 00	191 25
1856, . .	301	18,399 00	2,090 25	716 25	4,529 25	227 25
1857, . .	350	23,218 50	2,859 25	684 00	7,338 00	276 00
1858, . .	382	33,897 75	3,697 50	632 25	9,740 25	295 50
1859, . .	429	53,215 50	4,300 00	645 00	14,697 50	392 25

In this table, it will be remarked that, after 1856, the sum of the monthly deposits diminished, although the number of associates augmented yearly. The cause of this is, that about 100 of the old members had reached the figure of the normal capital, and could only contribute now to the common fund by their deposits.

Glancing over the rest of Germany, at the beginning of the co-operative movement, one perceives, here and there, relatively important attempts, more or less independent of the movement in Prussia; notably, in Austria, in 1857, one finds several essays. We will not pursue this investigation. We will not study coöperative associations during the ten first years of their development, because they offer only a secondary interest, during that first epoch, as we insist upon calling the years of apprenticeship and isolation. We will come back to our description of the year 1859, where the new epoch of the coöperative movement begins.

Each association had to pass, without assistance, through its time of probation. Herr Schulze, it is true, published yearly, after 1853, his practical works upon associations and the principles which they should follow; he gave counsel everywhere; spoke in all the grand

* At end of 1852, 30.

popular assemblies; in the Prussian legislative body; and worked through the press; and had the whole confidence of men who were as learned as disinterested, as well as the entire confidence of the people. Things, in fact, worked wonderfully well, but there was not yet that grand, general impulse which took up the movement after 1859, when it had been given a centre. In 1850, Herr Schulze convoked for the first time, a general assembly of the representatives of the German coöperatives, at Ureniar, to deliberate on common interests and on most important questions; and to compare experiences. This first assembly adopted two important resolutions: to found a permanent communication between all the German Societies, and a central bureau under the presidency of Herr Schulze; and to meet, yearly, in general assembly of the representatives of all the associations. This is the beginning of the second epoch.

It would be impossible to follow, in detail, the activity that the central bureau developed and the results which it attained, because there hardly exists in Germany a single coöperative association, whose history is not intimately entwined with that of the central bureau, and has not received direct or indirect aid from that institution. Before 1859, no association had profited by the experience of the others. Each went alone, and fell into the same errors that had ruined its predecessor. To-day, the newborn profits by all the experience of its elders. The ten first years gave only 300 associations, at the most, because at the end of 1859, one counted between 250 and 300 coöperative societies dispersed over all Germany. The last bulletin of the central bureau, for 1866, showed that the number of these associations was at least 1,500. Before 1859, the coöperative interests had no public organ; since that time, an especial journal, founded and directed by the president of the central bureau, is distributed in every corner of German territory.

The statutes of organization of this central bureau are, in brief, as follows:—Representation and development of the associations generally, through the press, in special congresses and in public life generally, and an especial vigilance over social interests in the legislation of the different German countries; active assistance and counsel, both for associations in process of foundation, and for the development and maintenance of those which already existed, especially in giving them information and instruction; to serve as a medium for mutual relations between the associations; especially, to communicate the experience and results obtained; the arrangement of commercial relations between them and the institutions which served to watch over common interests, by their united force

and means, opening all sources of credit, either with bankers or with other associations.

Inasmuch as the credit reposes upon superfluous funds, not employed in their operations, the results ought to satisfy the most exacting. It has been seen that, from 1849 to 1859, ten years gave birth to hardly 300 associations; the following seven years saw 1,200 born, which shows that more was done under the new regime in two years, than in the previous decade. The average, up to 1859, had been 30 new associations per year; after 1859, 171 per year. In 1859, 80 associations had gathered together a fund, belonging to them strictly (to the credit of the associates and the reserve fund reckoned together), of \$207,634.50, to which they had joined a sum of \$760,608.75 in foreign funds, exterior funds, loans and deposits, or savings, and engaged in operations which amounted to \$3,098,552.00. In 1865, 498 associations possessed \$3,639,418.58 of their own, and in foreign funds \$13,227,582.00, and engaged in operations to the amount of \$50,677,427.50. If we take the averages, and place them one beside the other, we shall find that, in 1859, the average means had been raised by a single society,

	Own Funds.	Outside Funds.	Commercial Op- erations.
In 1859,	\$2,595 00	\$9,507 00	\$38,732 50
In 1865,	7 308 00	26,591 25	101,761 50

Of course, this parallel is made not only from the central bureau's point of view, but to show the rapid and prodigious development that coöperative associations took, the moment they left the first epoch of apprenticeship; and to throw into stronger relief the hopes to which the coöperative movement gives birth. It was certainly the central bureau which favored, encouraged and guided these associations in this enormous development; but one need hardly believe that it is this central bureau to which alone the honor of this impulse is due. It is rather the healthy idea of coöperation, which had taken root in a soil wonderfully adapted to it.

Before taking the detailed statistics of the second epoch, as far as 1865, we must not forget to indicate the source whence we have taken the figures. For these statistics we are indebted again to the central bureau; and its activity in this respect, — the accumulation of statistics, — is very precious. It publishes, each year, a bulletin which embraces, first, the general development of the coöperative

associations, considered, firstly, with regard to the countries or sections where it is developed; secondly, in regard to the degree of perfection which the system attains. This bulletin, then, makes known the especial development of different associations, giving an account of their annual operations. There exists in Germany no official organ for the gathering of these facts. It would be very difficult, if not impossible, for the government to establish statistics of any exactitude, because the workmen's societies are afraid of the government, and do not desire to give it the necessary light upon their condition and operations; but they send with the greatest freedom, every year, the results of their associations to the above-named central bureau. When we say "very willingly," the expression must not be taken in its strictly literal sense; because we shall see that only a few of the existing associations regularly send the results of their progress to the central bureau; but that is due, largely, to the fact that the greater part of the associations have not yet sufficient instruction to give an account which would serve a proper statistical turn, although they are willing enough, but as yet the greater part do not belong to the central union. The bulletins of the central bureau are, however, always rich enough to give a faithful idea of the actual situation of the coöperative movement in Germany.

Let us examine some of the bulletins of the central bureau. We shall find, dating from 1859, the following development.

POPULAR BANKS.

Of 183 associations known to the central bureau, the following had sent in their annual account:

In 1859,	.	.	.	80 associations.
1860, of 257 known,	133			"
1861, of 364	"	188		"
1862, of 511	"	243		"
1863, of 662	"	339		"
1864, of 890	"	455		"
1865, of 961	"	515		"

(About 50 per cent. in each year.)

It is needless to add that the number of associations, known by name to the central bureau, is by no means the number of existing associations. If one wishes to get at the approximate number of existing societies, he should augment the figures, in the above table, by from 15 to 40 per cent. The results of these associations are as follows:—

Y E A R	No. of societies who have made returns.	Number of mem- bers.	Advances made during the year.	INDIVIDUAL DEPOSITS.			FUNDS OF NON-MEMBERS.		
				Credit of members in the bank.	Funds contribu- ted by non-mem- bers to sustain the institution.*	Total.	Loans.	Savings Deposits.	Total.
1859, .	80	18,676	\$3,098,577 00	\$185,500 60	\$23,133 60	\$207,634 20	\$376,346 20	\$384,262 40	\$760,608 60
1860, .	133	31,603	6,358,866 60	346,509 00	50,133 60	396,642 40	802,374 60	991,870 40	1,794,245 20
1861, .	188	48,760	12,657,006 60	599,531 20	402,142 20	679,959 60	1,487,580 60	1,986,757 00	3,474,377 60
1862, .	243	69,202	17,755,695 60	899,658 60	99,669 60	999,328 40	2,580,774 60	2,060,682 60	4,641,457 40
1863, .	339	99,175	25,438,461 00	135,242 20	163,535 20	1,515,937 40	4,231,365 00	2,562,165 00	6,793,530 00
1864, .	455	136,613	36,070,621 20	2,219,472 00	220,095 60	2,439,567 60	5,550,987 60	4,016,448 60	9,567,436 40
1865, .	515	173,511	52,011,387 60	3,436,756 20	313,329 00	3,750,085 40	8,600,052 60	5,211,507 00	13,931,559 60

* Called *Fonds Étrangers*.

The averages, for each association taken, represent the following figures:—

YEARS.	Average number of members.	Av'ge amount of advances made during the year.	Average of own funds.	Average of outside funds.
1859,	208	\$38,751 40	\$2,595 00	\$9,507 00
1860,	238	47,811 00	2,982 00	13,490 20
1861,	259	67,324 40	3,618 60	18,480 60
1862,	284	73,068 60	4,112 20	19,100 20
1863,	292	75,039 60	4,471 40	20,039 20
1864,	300	79,363 40	5,361 00	21,027 00
1865,	339	101,761 40	7,281 60	26,818 40

Here, then, we have the exact figures, with mathematical certainty, taken from the books and the reports of 515 popular banks. He who wishes to state them more strictly in detail, and wishes to note especially the development of certain associations, will find all that is necessary in the annual bulletins of Herr Schulze, after 1859. We have seen that the central bureau had knowledge of the existence of 961 popular banks; and we believe we do not deceive ourselves, if we suppose that it did not know all the associations which were in operation in 1865; and that it would be necessary to raise this figure to the number of 1,075, to have the approximate number of the popular banks of Germany. [This report was issued in 1867, and an increase of from ten to fifteen per cent. has probably taken place; although many of the associations then existing have been destroyed, others have arisen to take their places.]

Taking the averages that we establish above, we shall find that these 1,075 popular banks have 364,405 members. Their business shows the following facts:—

1. Of their own proper funds, \$7,827,881.00.
2. Outside funds employed in commerce, \$28,994,887.40.
3. Sum of its operations, \$108,559,706.00.

We said above that figures were eloquent, and that the best argument that could be found for the system of coöperation, would be in their speech. After having seen those that precede, we shall be excused from any other argument in favor of the coöperative system. As to the other coöperative associations, we will confine

ourselves,—not to embarrass this paper by too many figures and details,—to showing their actual condition; not attempting to describe their actual development, as we have done with popular banks. We shall show that this development is inferior in nothing to that of the popular banks. It is as sure, as firm, as constant. The popular banks are the more numerous, and the associations of production the more recent. The coöperative movement in Germany proposes, as its first aim, to procure for its members what is most necessary in family life, as well as in industry and commerce; namely, money and credit. When it has satisfied this first want everywhere, we shall see no more new popular banks born; and the coöperative movement will turn itself with all its force into the other branches.

The first bulletin of Herr Schulze gives the names of 157 associations of consumption; 143 for the purchase of raw material; 30 for storage, and 26 for production; of “machine and utensil” associations, there are ten. 34 of these associations of consumption, which had sent in their balance sheets, justified the following figures:—

They possessed the sum of \$18,744.40 of their own, and \$551.20 by society; which establishes for the 200 societies a common fund of \$110,240.00. The *fonds étrangers* employed in commerce, amounted to \$26,607.60, or by society, \$782.40; that is to say, \$156,480.00 for the 200 societies. In short, the 34 societies did business to the amount of \$231,345.60 or \$6,804.20 to a society; to wit, \$1,360,840.00 for the 200 societies together. The associations for the purchase of raw material number 180; 19 alone sent in their balance sheets to the central bureau and showed the following figures.

Number of members in 58 societies, 1,118.

Own funds, \$28,646.00 or \$1,508.20 each.

Other funds, \$56,300.00 or \$2,970.00 each.

Sum of operations, \$167,600.00 or \$8,824.20 each.

Approximately, we have, for the 100 raw material societies, 10,440 members; funds, strictly their own, \$271,476.00; *fonds étrangers*, \$534,600.00, and the joint amount of their business, \$1,588,356.00. The other associations have not sent in their balance sheets; and, of the productive associations, but one gave any account of its condition. The figures in the report published in 1867, showed that in 30 productive associations, there were 420 members. Funds strictly their own, \$26,640.00; *fonds étrangers*, \$34,838.00; amount of business, \$206,190.00. As to the branches of industry which were represented in these productive associations, there are tailors, cabinet makers, cotton and linen weavers, mechanics in general, printers,

workers in fine metals, bakers, clock-makers, shoe-makers, carriage-makers. Nearly all of them are workmen who have left their patrons, for some reason or other, and have begun to produce for themselves, after having got together a small capital.

Another important point of these statistics is the class of society which is represented by the members of the coöperative associations in Germany. Let us begin with a popular bank which is the most important coöperative association in the country. Its members are classified as follows:—

17 of every 100 are real workmen.

8 of every 100 are the most miserable, petty merchants, with even less means than the foregoing.

15 of every 100 are small dealers and farm workmen.

25 of every 100 are artisans, called master-workmen, since they have passed their examination, but in reality, are workmen, and sometimes more miserable because they have not always occupation.

10 of every 100 are small builders and little tradesmen, in the provincial villages.

25 of every 100 are small (patrons) employers.

The popular banks are then composed of 65 per cent. of that class of the population, which may be assimilated to the French workmen, and 35 per cent. of a class in rather more easy circumstances; but one should not imagine that this 35 per cent. portion is composed of rich people, because petty business men and manufacturers in little towns, and the small artisans and patrons in the large towns, are no better off than their *confrères* in France. They do not belong, it is true, to the *proletariat*, but they are far from belonging to the rich middle class. They gain a modest livelihood by commerce.

As the result of considerable research, it may be stated as certain that the popular banks have well merited their name, because they have been recruited from the people and serve strictly the people. That is to say, they serve that great portion of society, which has need of financial independence to lift itself up. The working class outnumbers any other in these banks, and the other poor classes are not excluded; and it would be a very great error, one by the way which seems sufficiently prominent in other countries, to suppose that these popular banks owe their vigor and prodigious development to the participation of the upper classes. The *poor class* created them, developed them, and formed and will form their membership.

ACCOUNT OF SCHOOLS AND INSTRUCTION THEREIN IN PRUSSIA.

By NATH'L T. ALLEN, Esq., of West Newton.

Mr. A. was abroad in 1869, '70 and '71, and visited schools in Germany, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, France, England and Scotland. He has kindly furnished the following valuable information, the careful study of which we earnestly recommend.

It is wise in us to search the world over for methods in educating and improving the condition of a people. It is also our duty to study, how we may rightly adapt any approved system to our own wants and circumstances.

As agent of the Department of Public Instruction at Washington, much time of the past two years has been spent by me in visiting and inspecting schools and educational establishments of every grade, in Germany and other European Countries. The utmost courtesy was uniformly extended, and every facility afforded me in furtherance of the objects in view. In addition to examining and reporting upon the practical work, methods of instruction, etc. in the primary and secondary schools, I was specially requested to examine the industrial schools in those countries where they had been most thoroughly developed.

During this time, I often had occasion to answer questions concerning our Massachusetts school system. This afforded me great satisfaction, for ours had always seemed so admirable in theory and practice, that I wished every one to know and appreciate it. At St. Mark's Schools, Chelsea, England, however, while in conversation with its gentlemanly and scholarly Director, Mr. G. Z. Cromwell, he quite astounded me by referring to the sad condition of so large a number of the children of the poor in our towns and cities. My first impulse was to deny the statement; but, upon expressing a doubt, the Director quietly took from his shelf your last report, wherein the facts were given, when nothing more was to be said in contradiction, and it has since been my determination, as it should be that of every true friend of Massachusetts, to do all in my power to remedy this state of ignorance and depravity among our neglected classes.

In order fully to understand and appreciate the following statements, it is necessary to learn somewhat the system of education, condition of the people, form of government, etc., in the countries under consideration. The form of government in Prussia and other

German States is arbitrary and despotic, to a degree difficult to be understood or believed by a native citizen of Massachusetts; nor has there been a day, during the past century, when the inhabitants of New England would have submitted, without a revolution, to the laws under which the German people are now living. Probably, never in the history of our country has the social condition of the working-classes of the Northern States been so low; nor have our women ever been so degraded in their homes, or at their daily out of door toils, as is the case with the corresponding classes in all parts of Germany, at the present time. The caste system, at present, prevails to an extent quite astonishing to us Republicans, who constantly observe the children of rich and poor exchanging places; each taking the position in society for which their talents and efforts have fitted them. Not so in Germany where, as a rule, the child follows the condition of his parent.

The leading thought of those wise men, who, soon after the downfall of Napoleon, in 1815, projected the system of public education in Prussia and other German States, as is so apparent in the system, was, undoubtedly, how best to educate the whole people* in the most thorough manner, to meet the varied wants and necessities of the several grades of servants, peasants, artisans and the different professions. Education is absolutely compulsory, and nothing but sickness constitutes a valid excuse for the absence of a child. The Germans have a word signifying *due to the school*. All children of the required school-going age must be present, each school day of the week, term and year. Should a parent or guardian retain any child or ward from school, without satisfactory excuse, he receives a written communication from the school director, inquiring into the cause of such detention. Should the same be repeated, a more explicit and decided note is dispatched; and, upon a third repetition, an officer proceeds *to the extremity of placing the parent or guardian in prison*, and the child in school,—the expenses to be charged to the parent. Public sentiment, however, is so universally in favor of education, that rarely is any difficulty experienced with either parent or child. An exception is made in those cases, where the child is placed in a private school, or is educated by a private tutor; yet there can be no private school established, or teacher permitted to instruct in them, without a permit from Government. Yet, from the necessarily inflexible character of these great public schools, very many parents and guardians educate their children in private institutions, many of which I visited and found

* Girls' schools were formerly of little account, in Germany; and now they are generally inferior to our best High and Normal Schools for girls and young ladies.

some inferior, others superior to the public! The schools are not free as we count free schools. All are required to pay tuition, save those parents who are too poor to do so,* it being the theory that nothing is so fully appreciated as that which costs something; and that every parent should pay a tuition fee for his child, in accordance with his means. I should add that education is compulsory only in those rudimentary branches ordinarily attainable at the age of 14 years, when, if qualified to pass an examination in religion, (theology), children are confirmed in the church,—either Lutheran, Catholic, or Jewish (no other is allowed); and this confirmation is also compulsory; for no man can receive an apprentice to any trade, or a boy in a shop, or even a man or maid-servant, unless they can produce a certificate of confirmation from a clergyman, priest or rabbi. Nor can marriage be solemnized, in most German States, except on condition of the confirmation of both parties.

CLASSES OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN GERMANY.

The Public schools below the University and Professional Schools—Polytechnic, Agricultural, etc.,—consist of five distinct grades in Prussia, Saxony, and other North German States, and their equivalents in the Southern. These are established and maintained, each for a distinct class of people, and to which, with few exceptions, the children of the prescribed class are sent. Rarely do children pass from one grade of school to another, but remain in the one entered when they first attended school.

I. The Volks Schulen, or people's schools, are for the children of the poorest classes in the cities and large towns. The tuition in these schools is a mere trifle, and they are sometimes termed "pauper schools."

II. Dorf Schulen, Village Schools, for the children of the peasants in the country, who all live in compact villages, to which they return after the labors of the day upon the land of the surrounding country.

III. Burger Schulen or Citizen's Schools, for the children of the commoner artisans, shop-keepers, etc.; who anxiously desire that their sons may receive a better training than the Volks Schulen afford, and who are able to bear the additional expense of tuition. These schools are of two grades, to meet the different educational desires of the parents; and in Berlin, were made nearly non-tuition-paying, two years ago.

* Within two years, there has been in Prussia a reduction of tuition in the Burger school, so that the sum now required is very small. This change was mainly due to the desire to keep separate the children of the different classes in society.

IV. Real Schulen (Schools) are for those among the better class of people, who wish and can afford for their children a more thorough and extended course of training, in preparation for a more intelligent life,—whether as merchant or other business life, or to enter a Polytechnic or other Science School. Of these, there are two or three grades, varying in their course of study to meet the different demands of parents.

V. The Gymnasium, is the highest class of schools and receives lads at seven years of age,—the age, at which children are admitted to any public school in Germany. These are classical schools, and carry their students through as extended a course of the ancient languages as that of almost any college in the United States. In this and the Real School, the Students ordinarily continue till eighteen years of age, before completing the full course prescribed; though, as previously stated, after the age of fourteen and confirmation, attendance is not compulsory. In these great and justly renowned schools are gathered the sons of nearly all professional men, citizens of wealth or station.

The above five distinct classes constitute the primary and secondary schools embraced in the celebrated Public School system of Germany. It may be well to state the course of study in the three lower classes of school, that it may be better seen what are the branches, and to what extent they are pursued by the children of the lower classes. The Dorf School of the country and the Burger School of the city are designed for the humbler classes; and the course of study in these is very similar, and is well arranged for the future needs of these classes.

The common branches of reading, writing, composition, arithmetic and geography, together with some branches of natural history, singing, and much attention to Religion and Bible History, constitute the work for the seven years spent in these schools. Nor is it possible for any child, of ordinary ability, to pass through this course, without gaining a fair knowledge of the above branches. In the Volks Schools of the city and large towns, the extent of the study-plan is more limited, but designed to qualify the pupils in the common elementary branches, to perform successfully the duties of their menial employments with fair intelligence.

Entering school at seven, their first year is devoted to elementary reading, writing and arithmetic, with poetry committed to memory, while they also receive instruction in Religion. The second year is the same, with practise in conversation and particular attention to penmanship. Bible History, Geography and Natural Science are added the third year. For the remaining four years the full course

is education in Religion, Bible History, Conversation, Reading and Penmanship, Arithmetic, Geography, History and Natural History and Singing through the whole course. Thus, while the course of study prescribed in the schools for the children of the poorer classes is not extensive, it is deemed sufficient to meet the wants of that class of people; the conservatives maintaining, that, to extend the same would be an injury, by unfitting this class of persons for their sphere in life and causing discontent with their lot.

From the foregoing statement it is readily seen that it is not possible or desirable to transfer, unchanged, the system of education of Prussia or other German States to Massachusetts, though parts of it can be introduced among us to great advantage.

No part commends itself more strongly to me, than that relating to industrial schools. The Gewerbe or Industrial schools of Germany are of different grades, and were established to accomplish various ends.

First.—The children of the volks school are daily gathered, for some two hours *after the six hours of the ordinary school are over*, and are taught in sections by competent instructors, the boys in various hand works of mat plaiting, chair bottoming, etc.; the girls in different varieties of needle-work, plain sewing, cutting out, knitting, etc., suited to the so-called menial positions they are to occupy in society, when grown to adult years. These schools are as thoroughly compulsory as the day schools;—their objects are (1) to train the eye, hand and brain to work with cleverness, and prepare for more effective work in future; (2) to keep these children from the street and out of mischief when not in school; and (3) to earn money, however little, for they work by the piece; and in this way add a few kreutzers, each afternoon, which generally becomes sufficient, when they leave school at fourteen years of age, to purchase a suit of clothes for confirmation in the church, which confirmation is also compulsory.

Another class of industrial schools is for the apprentices to the various departments of industry, carpenters, masons, painters, etc., with other schools for the daughters of the better classes of artisans, &c., where fine needle-work, embroidery, etc., are added to common sewing, cutting out, etc.

Each master workman who receives an apprentice, must bind himself to allow the lad time to attend industrial evening schools, which also have a session on Sunday mornings. In these schools, able and thoroughly competent professors lecture and instruct in all theoretical and practical truths pertaining to any and all mechanical pursuits, and especially to those scholars learning particular

trades. Those schools are perfect *beehives*, every one seeming so intent upon his particular work, the principles of which they see applied at their daily work in their respective trades. It quite astonishes Americans to notice how little of so-called discipline is required in these schools. In all my visits, I saw nothing to indicate that it was required on the part of the pupil or practised by the teacher. Every demonstration of a principle at the black-board, every remark concerning modelling, etc., was listened to with a spirit of entire devotion to the subject under consideration. In this connection it should be stated that the excellent results in the German schools are obtained by other, happier and more rational means than corporal punishment, which public sentiment among teachers and all classes in the community, when not absolutely forbidden by law, seems to have completely banished from the school-room.

Whether it will be deemed advisable or practicable thus to *compel* (an unpopular word with us) the young apprentices in our cities to attend such admirable schools and pursue such studies as are adapted to their callings, I will not here consider; but every one can understand what immense benefits would be derived from such a course, where all lads, apprenticed to their various trades, should spend their evenings in listening to lectures, and in studying, under accomplished professors, Geometry, Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, Moulding, Architecture, etc., which are applied in their respective callings,—benefits to the young apprentice, to his master and to the community, pecuniarily, intellectually, socially and morally, which must be incalculable. In the United States, especially such instruction is absolutely essential to the young artisan; for, with us, numerous and complicated labor-saving machines, now used so extensively, require a correspondingly increased cultivation of the head and hand in their management. In addition to enforcing attendance upon our common schools, cannot we secure a like attendance upon such industrial schools by young apprentices? How beneficial this lower class of industrial schools must prove, furnishing instruction and work in well warmed and healthful rooms, under competent teachers, for all children of the poor from 7 to 14 years of age!

In answer to questions put by Horace Mann to many of the most eminent educators in our country, David P. Page, John Jacob Abbott, John Griscom, Esq., Catherine E. Beecher and others, it was stated that, if all the children in a community were kept in schools, taught by persons of high moral character, from the age of 4 to 16 years, ten months in a year, 95 *per cent.* would

become virtuous, noble citizens. If this is true, as all thoughtful teachers and educators will admit, it behooves us to take steps in this way, immediately, for the reduction of our criminal class, now so frightfully large, by 95 per cent. I was informed that not only the parents and master workmen of these children and apprentices felt it a great privilege to have them thus taught and cared for out of school and work hours, but the youths themselves enjoyed these play work hours. In cities which I visited, where there is a distinct and prominent branch of industry in which the population is mainly interested, as in Geneva, Switzerland, *Watchmaking*; Mülhouse, Alsace, *Cotton spinning and weaving*; Rheims, France, *Cashmere and other woolen fabrics, &c.*, the industrial schools of those places give special instruction, theoretical and practical, in that particular branch of industry. Thus, in Meisen, Saxony, was gathered a school where every branch of porcelain manufacture was taught, embracing mineralogy, moulding, furnace-heating, baking, glazing, drawing, painting, &c., that the future workmen might know thoroughly the process in the art of china manufacture. In no other way would it be possible to produce that wonderfully fine quality of china, the *finest* of which rarely reaches this country, actually commanding as it does, its weight in gold.

In Mülhouse I visited a school, where three grades of pupils were received: (1) those to become spinners, weavers, etc.; (2) those preparing to be overseers and managers of rooms; (3) those (sons of mill-owners in France, Germany and England), to be fitted to take positions as superintendents of mills, and who must understand the art of manipulation from the raw material to the finished fabric, — the beautiful French calico of the shops.

In Rheims, the same attention is paid to the careful and accurate preparation of the student, through the whole process of assorting, dyeing, etc., spinning, weaving and dressing the wool, to produce those exquisite merinos, in which no manufactory in the world, outside of this old French city, can compete. Others might be spoken of, but the above is sufficient to demonstrate how invaluable these higher industrial schools are, in developing and carrying forward any branch of manufacturing to the highest point of perfection. I should add, that, in connection with these higher professional industrial schools, are established museums, exhibiting to the eye every phase in the manufacture of that product under consideration, from foreign countries as well as their own.

As specimens of the most perfectly systematized industrial schools, I should not omit special mention of those beautiful schools for the little ones, Frobel's "Kindergartens," or Children's work and play

schools, scattered over Germany; where, by this wonderful system, the children are developed in full harmony with their nature. The eye and hand are trained, while their physical, social, intellectual and moral natures grow in a manner entirely normal. It is the uniform testimony of the progressive party among educators, professors and teachers in Germany, that those, who have received this early training of the Kindergarten, invariably make far better artisans, artists, engineers and scholars, in consequence of this training; and, from my observation, I feel confident that such must be the result. When we consider how immeasurably greater in amount is the stock of human attainment now, than in a generation past, and how this accumulation must make part of an intelligent youth's mental acquirements, how absolutely necessary it is that every facility should be afforded our children for its accomplishment.

LABOR IN AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY.

[We have received the following communication, on the subject of labor in Austria and Hungary, from Mr. PAUL LIPTAY, from Pesth, subsequent to a visit from him.]

The solution of the workman question has already become the urgent matter of our century, and eminent men of the two worlds are sacrificing much labor upon it. All that I have seen in America, and especially in the State of Massachusetts, has deeply surprised me; and I am convinced that even this difficult problem, for the keys of the solution of which so many are searching, can be best solved in a land, where the liberty and independence of each individual are assured; where the people have the power in their own hands, and where neither monarchy nor despotism has established itself. Such a country I find only in the United States of America.

Keeping my promise to you, at our late interview, I intend to furnish you some facts on the position of the Hungarian workmen. You need not expect very favorable facts about our working people. They are very sad, in comparison with your own, but statistics being the science of truth, and myself being a friend of that science, I will tell you all I can gather; being, however, far from my country and not in possession of the newest facts.

In Hungary, this question has been known but a few years. The position of the worker is very much depressed, and there have been but few strikes, — that of the type-setters only producing any good

results. Our working people occupied themselves about their individual business, till about the year 1868, when the great "Workingmen's Association" was formed, under the auspices of well known men, and in which there were enrolled more than 1,500 members. They held public lectures on Sundays, and established drawing, industrial and other classes for elementary studies. The principles were those of Schulze Delitch, and the association became at once very flourishing. They also formed a fraternal society for the establishment of a store, the profits of which should be distributed among the members. They also founded a savings bank.

These last named institutions are flourishing now; but not so are the associations for educating and elevating the workmen. They continued but a few months, and were lost, as much through the fault of those who had them in charge, as of that of the members. There was too great expectation of early results from them, and too little patience in waiting. But the Hungarian workman is beginning to think more about his own interest, and is giving more attention to the condition of his fellows and of general humanity.

Other associations have also been formed in Pesth and the other principal cities of our country; yet none of them are so prosperous as could be desired. Those, whose financial affairs are in the best condition, are safe from ultramontaniam, — the principles of which will never permit a workman to make any advance or improvement. I should here mention the Young Men's Mercantile Association, with its 700 members, and large reading room, library, and classes in various practical sciences.

Hungary has a favorable climate, fertile soil, good intercommunication, and is a land of industry, agriculture being the principal employment of its people. There is a considerable exportation of its products, and some of its trades cannot meet the outside demand from Austria, Germany, France and England. The education of the workmen and people generally is very poor indeed. It is enough to show this, that according to the declaration of Baron Joseph Eatôôs, the minister of public instruction, more than 20,000 schoolmasters are needed for the instruction of the people, but for whom not even the school-houses are yet built.

Let me take the facts of this subject from the latest reports, 1870, of the city of Pesth—our national and industrial centre. The city has a population of 200,000 souls, of whom 41,000 are occupied in mechanical industry and 10,000 in commerce. It would hence, at first, seem as though the city was industrial rather than commercial, but it is not so. The 41,000 workmen are those who furnish the inhabitants with what they need, day by day, and, with the excep-

tion of the great Flour Mill industry, there is none which is important enough to be called a great industry. These Flour Mills, in 1870, exported a vast quantity of flour to Germany, Switzerland, France, and even to Brazil, where the finest qualities are in steady demand. There are 14 of these mills, with more than 6,000 horsepower, 697 grindstones, 3,449 workmen, and an annual yield of 107,470,000 pounds of flour (equal to 548,316 barrels). We call this our national industry.

In connection with our working people I must mention some sorry facts in relation to those belonging to Pesth. One-sixth part of them can neither read nor write. The statistics of the last year show that out of every

10,000 Master Tailors,	1,195 cannot read nor write.
10,000 " Shoemakers,	1,267 " " "
10,000 " Cabinet-Makers,	967 " " "
10,000 " Locksmiths,	597 " " "
10,000 Journeymen Tailors,	1,379 " " "
10,000 " Shoemakers,	1,565 " " "
10,000 " Cabinet-Makers,	767 " " "
10,000 " Locksmiths,	977 " " "

This neglected condition of the education of our working people leaves us small hope of keeping up with the advanced Western States of Europe.*

In the City, the daily wages in some industries—as that of the masons—are about \$1.50; while, in the vicinity, they are but about from 40 to 50 cents a day. Yet it must not be supposed that the city workman has a very great advantage; for his high wages are scarcely enough for his support, and he is very far from the idea of being able to make any provision for himself or his family. It is dear living in the city, and the dwelling-houses of the working people are very bad indeed.

In every great city, and so in Pesth, one of the darkest shadows of life, *is the lodging-houses of the working people*. In that city there are 29,159 persons living in small rooms, in basements and in cellars. Of these, only 1,443 live with separation of the sexes into different rooms; while 17,358 males and 10,356 females live together and sleep together promiscuously, *in the same rooms, with no provision for the separation of the sexes*. That the moral and physical result of this herding together is of the very worst, needs no explanation here. Statistics also show that of those who live with at least

* Are these any better off? (BUREAU.)

five in a room, throughout the city, there are 78,727 persons,—being about two-fifths of the entire population,—and that of these, 15,564 persons live in cellar-rooms. Vastly different is it in Belgium, where the rule is that the sexes are divided, and each single inhabitant has his own room. Sad as what I have described it to be, such is the condition of the Hungarian workman, but there is a dawn of hope; for men of heart, good-will and energy, are at last moving and will, we hope and pray, accomplish some relief.

The most important reforms are being inaugurated by our National Board of Trade. One of their earliest steps is for the building of improved dwelling-houses for our working-people. Committees are also engaged in the creation of Industrial Schools, the first of the kind in Hungary. This very winter (1870) there were opened in Pesth, six Industrial Evening and Sunday Schools, all of which are well attended, and the same kind of schools are spreading into the country towns; and wherever the National Board of Trade has its branches, there will be shortly established free Libraries and free Reading-Rooms. In the city of Pesth, the Board has received a donation of 740 square feet of land, whereon to erect a National Museum of Industry, where lectures will be delivered, and where a collection will be gathered of the most interesting and useful inventions and improvements. Under the auspices of the same Board, there will also be held in 1872 a Congress of economists and agriculturists.

Since we attained our own government, we are making some progress, though by no means so quickly as is done in these free United States; but we hope, in time to take a position among the civilized nations of the old world, and one which we shall merit too by our own exertions.

These are the few facts I can communicate, being here in a foreign land and away from such books of reference as would assist me in making a more complete statement about the condition of the Hungarian workmen.

Truly yours,

PAUL LIPTAY.

THE TRUCK SYSTEM IN ENGLAND.

The enactments against Truck began as early as 1464; in which year, they were directed against the abuses prevalent in the cloth-making trade; these abuses appear to have consisted, first, of the practice of forcing laborers to take a great part of their wages in

“pins, girdles and other unprofitable wares”; and secondly, of the “delivery of wools to be wrought by very excessive weight.” A hundred years later (1565) a law prohibits the payment of wages in ware and other kind, among the drapers, cottoners and frizers of Shrewsbury. As English trades increased, truck appears to have increased among them. In the year 1701, “in order to prevent the oppression of the laborers and workmen employed in the woolen, linen, fustian, cotton and iron manufactures,” it was enacted that all payment shall be made in coin of the realm, and not by any cloth, victuals or commodities, in lieu thereof; and a provision was made against unjust weights in the wool delivered out to be wrought up. In 1740, an Act is found forbidding payments, except at the workman’s request in “victuals, goods or commodities,” in the manufacture of “gloves, breeches, boots, shoes, slippers, wares,” and other goods. Truck in the woolen manufactures, in felt-making and hat-making, and in the manufacture of silk, mohair, fur, hemp, flax, linen, cotton, fustian, iron and leather, was the object of similar prohibitory measures, in 1749. The statute of 1817, after reciting some of the previous provisions against truck in woolen manufacture and other trades, extends a like protection to the manufactures of steel, plated articles and cutlery. In collieries, truck was first made unlawful, in 1817. In 1831, the present Truck Act was passed, consolidating the law and rendering truck illegal in a variety of trades. It would appear from the above facts that truck is a mischief of old standing, cotemporary with the growth of the staple manufactures of the country.

For practical purposes truck in England may be roughly divided into two kinds, which are not, however, in practice separated by so broad a line of demarcation that they will not constantly be found intermixed.

a. The truck (chiefly found in the iron and coal trades), dependent upon lengthened pays, and upon the conditions on which advances during the interval are furnished.

b. The more miserable truck (existing principally in trades liable to depression, or carried on in outlying districts), the characteristic of which is the inability of the laborer to obtain or be secure of retaining employment, unless he is content to deal at the shop of his employer.

THE IRON AND COAL TRADE—SOUTH WALES.

The truck in the iron and coal districts of South Wales and Monmouthshire is found to so considerable an extent among large companies, that the term “company’s shop” is popularly used to

designate the shop or store kept by the employers to supply their men with food.

The system begins at a point where the workman, unable to support himself till the pay-day by the help of his draw alone, finds it necessary to obtain a further or intermediate advance between the draws. This class of workmen is the class by whose custom the company's shop is kept alive. The improvident, the feeble, the drunkard belong to this class; but it would be a mistake to believe that it is only composed of such. Large families, ill health, bad times, accidental misfortunes, swell its numbers, and the total list of men who have recourse to their employer for advances may be judged with some accuracy in every case, by the company's shop sales. At Hatton, as a collier observed, "a man with a family of seven or eight children, cannot stand a fortnight or three weeks without money or victuals." The workman who has wages to his credit, unless he is heavily in debt, can generally obtain this requisite advance. But he obtains it, as a rule, and except in special cases of accident or illness, only on the understanding that a large portion of it is to be spent at the company's shop; two or three shillings in cash being generally allowed free. The amount of the advance is charged against and deducted from the balance (if any) accruing to him at the pay-day. In order to disguise the real effect of the transaction, a machinery is generally adopted, by which the workman actually receives (either at the shop or at an advance office, built near the shop for the purpose, and usually distinct from the pay office at the works,) the cash, which he is expected to carry over to the shopman who hands him his goods. The details of the arrangement differ at different works. Sometimes, the goods are first ordered at the shop, and the amount so ordered is written outside or inside the workman's shop book, which he produces to the advance clerk, at the office, when he applies for his advance. Sometimes, a line, or I O U, is given by the advance office on the shop. Sometimes, a ticket is given at the shop for the advances. Occasionally, the shopkeeper officiates both as shopkeeper and chief advance clerk, and he, or his men, pay over at one counter, or at the little desk partitioned off from the shop, cash, which the workman walks round and pays back again at another counter. The man who breaks the express or implied understanding, by carrying away the money given him for the shop's benefit, is a "sloper," and the penalty is, that the next time he goes for an advance, he is liable to be refused. The punishment is inflicted whenever it is necessary, and the men understand this sufficiently to prevent sloping from becoming serious. But the company's shop does not rely only on

the power of stopping advances. It has the further advantage of the idea, prevalent among workmen, that when their company keeps a shop, it is necessary or prudent to go to it. It cannot be doubted that there is a common belief that it will be well with that man who buys at his employer's shop. That pressure of some kind, direct or indirect, usually exists wherever a company's shop is to be seen, is not doubtful; the degree of pressure varying according to the wants of the shop and the character of the company. The state of apprehension among the men, where no step is taken to remove it, itself amounts to pressure. With a class so timid and so dependent, direct compulsion almost becomes unnecessary. That the company's shop does not offer credit on acceptable terms to a provident man, is proved by the fact that the provident men desert it. That it does not sell as cheaply as the open market, seems to follow from the fact that cash payment and weekly wages would ruin it.

The first effect of the monopoly obtained, (whether directly or insensibly,) by company's shops, is to be seen in the complaints of the men as to the prices and quality of the goods. There is no guarantee that they will follow the market prices; there is no security that they will not, at times, compel the customer to receive indifferent articles, or provide him with an insufficient choice,—a matter to which the work-people are sensitive.

One result of the whole system is that many an advance man (with the exception of the two or three shillings allowed to him out of his advances to take free of the shop), receives little actual cash, from one year's end to another. When pay-day comes, the balance coming to such men, after their advances have been deducted, amounts sometimes to nothing, frequently to very little. The cause (though they do not willingly recognize it), that they do not receive cash often, is, that they are already in the shop's debt, and the want of ready money among the men is too remarkable a feature not to be attributable in a considerable measure to the system. Unable to obtain advances in coin, they are in the habit of buying articles at the company's shop, which they do not want, and re-selling these articles at a loss, for drink. Often, the notes, lines, or tickets of the shop are passed by them, at a discount, in the neighborhood, as if these notes were negotiable instruments. Drink at public-houses they obtain, by buying tobacco, candles and other goods at the shop and exchanging them for beer, at a loss of 20 or 25 per cent. Tobacco, in several districts of South Wales, has become nothing less than a circulating medium. It is bought by the men, resold

by them for drink, and finds its way back again to some company's shop. Packets of tobacco pass, unopened, from hand to hand.

Truck in Scotland, in the coal and iron trade, is also a very old institution. Towards the West, Scotland abounds in truck; Lanarkshire and Ayrshire being its chief centres. Mr. McDonald, president of the Miners' National Association, contributed an approximate estimate of the numbers of miners and iron-workers in Scotland affected by the system. He thought that the number of hands connected with the works where there were stores or poundage, was about 25,000; and that there might be about 20,000 in works at which there are no stores. Mr. McDonald's impression was that the system is more greivous in the small than in the larger works; but, that in the branch establishments of the larger works, it is quite as rigorous as even in the smaller.

As in Wales, so in Scotland, the store or company's shop depends principally upon the length of the pays, and on the inability of the men to live in the interim without assistance. In Lanarkshire or Ayrshire, the pays are either fortnightly or monthly. A draw is between, but generally with a large deduction by way of poundage, or else on the condition that the greater portion of the draw shall be taken to the shop; a machinery to check sloping similar to that described in Wales being also adopted at Scotch works, where there are stores. The evidence shows that coercion of a severe description, both as regards the draw men and the pay men, is not infrequent in the west of Scotland. Possibly, the men are less timid and require stronger pressure. The general penalty for sloping is, no doubt, in both countries, the stoppage of future draws. But in Scotland, severer punishments are not unusual. Men have been asked and recommended to go to the store, to save themselves from being dismissed. Four or five years ago, it had been the custom for the oversman and the store-keeper to arrange together what men should, and what men should not be dismissed; and men have been threatened with this fate for not dealing at the store. At Jerviston, every workman is expected, it would seem, not only to deal at the store but also to rent a house from the company; and it appears that many have had to leave Jerviston, on this account.

Here the profits of a shop conducted upon the company's shop or store system, must, necessarily be very large. The investment is a perfectly safe one. The shop buys in large quantities and on the best terms; for it has the credit of a large company behind it. When it purchases goods by bills, say at two months, it receives money out of its men's wages to pay for the goods before the bills fall due. It requires accordingly little or no capital to carry on the

business. It has, or, with good management, need have, few bad debts, being able to protect itself by the wages of the men. Constant and certain custom is secured to it in the advance men, on whom it depends. Lastly, it can and does fix its own prices, independently of the market.

MORAL EFFECTS OF TRUCK.

A company's shop, supported without compulsion, direct or indirect, and managed with a single view to the men's convenience and advantage, might be a signal benefit. But there is no guarantee that company's shops will be so conducted, and the fate that has overtaken stores established on philanthropic principles, proves that a shop founded with the purest motives may easily degenerate into an abuse. The chief part of the evil springs not from intentional oppression on the part of employers, so much as from the fact of unrestricted monopoly. Apart from speculation, what company's shops might be, if this monopoly were or could be exercised on idea principles, there remains the more practical question, whether, as found in actual working, the company's shop-system has any moral advantages. This portion of the subject cannot be separated from the consideration of the good or bad effects of short and long pays. Long pays, as already stated, support truck in the coal and iron trade. But truck is only one phase of the social consequences they produce.

The immediate effect of long pays, even apart from truck, is to convert the workman from what he might, under other circumstances, have been,—a ready-money purchaser,—into a credit customer at some shop, be it the shop of his employer or of any ordinary retail tradesman. The first consequence is that he buys dearly; the second that,—unless the rules of ordinary life cease to be applicable to the case of workpeople,—the man who lives from month to month on credit, does not buy as providently as he otherwise might do. He does not see, till the month's end, the effect on his income of every act of expenditure. He ends, it may be, by drifting into debt with and, under the power therefore, of the shop where he deals. Yet it would be, accordingly, an injustice to suppose that the state of indebtedness, in which the customers of company's shops are so commonly found, is wholly due to the truck system. It is not truck alone which creates turn-book days with their evils and inconveniences; or the barter of notes and goods for drinks and other things; though truck aggravates and intensifies the mischief. Under a long pay system, the laborer must procure credit somewhere; and the necessity of living upon credit during the in-

tervals between pay days, tends to place him in the power of somebody. One argument, accordingly, in favor of truck, is that the company's shops removes the needy laborer from the tyranny of small hucksters, and gives him the advantage, which, whatever its demerits, is usually, when kept by *large* firms, well stocked with provisions of a good and sound quality. But it is to be observed, that this argument, in favor of truck, presupposes the existence of long pays; and then takes credit for truck, on the ground that truck mitigates some of their evils. But the long pays with all their mischief would disappear or tend to disappear, if the company's shop did not exist. As long pays assist truck, truck renders it to the direct interest of the employer to perpetuate long pays. Fortnightly pays are the rule in the North of England, where truck does not prevail. When we pass into the region of truck, the intervals between pay days at once increase. With weekly cash payments, the truck shops would come to the ground.

A more frequent argument in favor of the shop system is, that short pays lead to, while the company's shop represses, improvidence and intemperance among the men. The employers, who practice the company's shop system, consider their shop as a benefit, or, as sometimes it is called, a blessing to the improvident. By means of it the workman's wife, it is thought, is able, while her husband is at work, to obtain at the shop necessities of life, the price of which might otherwise be squandered by her husband in drunkenness or dissipation. Employers, who derive considerable profits from the monopoly, can scarcely be deemed impartial witnesses on the subject of the moral advantages the monopoly secures to others. But Mr. Wrenn and others thought the company's shop useful in the manner suggested. And masters, at whose works neither shops nor poundage exist, are, on moral grounds, found to advocate longer than weekly payments. The oftener the workman is paid, it is alleged, the more frequent are his temptations to drink. Pay-day, it is urged, causes works to stand idle, while the men are spending at the public house the cash they have recently received.

TRUCK IN THE NAIL TRADE.

Warwickshire, Worcester and Staffordshire are the seat of the wrought-nail trade, the chief centre of which is an area radiating 15 or 20 miles round Dudley. About 25,000 hands are employed at the manufacture, and, speaking roughly, about 14,000 are trucked; about two thirds are paid in truck, and about one-third in "ready money." The condition of the nailers, as a class, appears to be deplorable. The average wages for common nails, for a man working

very hard 14 hours a day, would be \$2.25 to \$2.50 a week. When there is a wife and children to help him, perhaps \$3.00 a week may be earned by working very hard. The generality of their houses were described "as more like hovels than anything else"; they live more than one in a room, and they are "always in distress." Mr. Horner, inspector of weights and measures for South Staffordshire, informed us that the pauperism in the nail-making districts was greater than elsewhere; that the laborers lived in shocking hovels, and had a most poverty-stricken appearance. The nail-makers' children, he added, are sent in very few instances to school. They are mostly engaged in working for their parents. A nailmaker, himself of a superior class and district chairman of his association, was asked why, if their condition was so wretched, they did not emigrate to some other part of the country; his answer was: "Because we have neither life nor soul left in us. We are worked down and down, till we become wretched, starving, miserable and destitute. You would not believe we were in such a condition, unless you were to see it."

Truck is a consequence of this depressed condition; and on the other hand, as will be seen, truck, by affecting prices and wages, tends to increase it. It is the poorer of the work-people who work for the fogger. Mr. Brooks, manufacturer, stated that there was a great difference between the social and moral condition of the men who work for ready money, and that of the men who work for truck masters; the latter are "a very low and degraded class, as a whole." The best men escape this lot; and it is because here, as elsewhere, the more enterprising and vigorous workmen pass into the service of employers who pay cash, that there is so little of combinations and strikes against the truck system.

The manner in which the act is now broken or evaded, is simple. The fogger starts a shop, which is kept either by himself, or by a wife, a son, or a daughter. When the nailer has finished his tale of nails, he carries it to his employer's office, and it is there weighed. A note is then given him, which he takes into the shop adjoining, and, after his shop account during the past week is settled, he receives the balance in cash. Often the method is varied by paying the workman in cash, which he is expected to, and does, employ in settling his shop debt. Sometimes the shop counter serves both as the place where the wages are paid, and where the shop account is discharged. The truth is, that it is perfectly understood among the men that the nailer, who works for a fogger, is expected to give the fogger's shop the benefit of his custom. Mr. Perkins, a ready-money master, says: "Truck can be carried on without saying any-

thing. There is no necessity for your intimating anything to your men; and what law can prevent a son of mine from setting up a shop in the next street to my warehouse. It is perfectly understood that the men have to go to the shop. Nobody would require to say anything to them, but when they came in next Monday for their work, there would be 'no orders for them.' If the men disregard this 'duty,' as it was called by one of them, of dealing at the shop, the employer does not hesitate to remind them." Joseph Partridge, a few years back, was working for a trucking master. His evidence was as follows: "If I did not spend the greater part of my wages, he soon said: 'You don't spend enough money, and if you don't spend more money, of course you cannot look to me for work.'"

Unable to get cash, the men are in the habit of re-selling, at a loss, the articles purchased by them from the fogger's shop. They pay their rent by buying flour at the shop and taking it to the landlord. "I have known that done," said one nailmaker, "and I have purchased flour of my neighbors, to enable them to pay their rent. I have paid 8*d.* a bushel more for it than I could have bought it for elsewhere, being sorry for them." Cheese, butter, bacon and sugar, as well as flour, are bought from the shop and re-sold in this way, at a reduction.

The above picture, drawn by the men, of their condition, is not exaggerated. "I consider," said one ready-money manufacturer, who was present, "that their evidence has been given very fairly and very truthfully. I think that, if anything, it does not go far enough. I think the men suffer more from the system than they have represented."

In 1830 there was a coalition between the masters and the nailers to put down truck, and similar efforts have been made for the last 35 or 40 years; but it has been found impossible to prevent it. On the whole, though a good deal of truck is still done by large houses, employing, some of them, 300 or 400 hands, there are not so many large houses who deal in truck, as formerly; but trucking middlemen are on the increase. "The fogging system," we were told by a district chairman of the Nailmakers' Association, "has got to such a head, that it almost leads the trade," and the men, in consequence, "are very much intimidated." Among the men, on the other hand, there is no Trades' Union. They complain much, but are afraid to prosecute. The witness last mentioned stated, that, if it had been possible to get them to come forward, "there would have been hundreds of prosecutions."

TRUCK IN THE HOSIERY TRADE.

The centres of the hosiery trade, with respect to which evidence has been adduced, are Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire and Leicestershire. About 30,000 people are here employed in it. It is divided into two distinct branches. In the first place, there are large manufactories, chiefly in towns, where power-machinery is coming more and more into use. It is by this machinery that the lower and middle-class goods are made. Besides this there is hosiery that is made by hand, a great portion of which is in the hands of middlemen—a class, who possess and require but little capital. They are entrusted with materials from the larger manufacturer, and distribute it to their own work people; returning to the manufacturer the made-up work.

There are, in this trade, two perfectly distinct grievances, immediately connected with operation of the Truck Act. The first is the truck in provisions, carried on in defiance or evasion of the law, by means of the shops kept in certain districts, by the middlemen. The second, relates to the difficult and vexed question of frame rent, deductions for which are legalized by the present Act, as interpreted by the decisions of the law courts.

No truck at all, as far as could be discovered, exists in the factories of the large manufacturers. What there is, is found only among the middlemen, and prevails chiefly in the northern part of Nottinghamshire, and two or three villages in Derbyshire and Leicestershire. Truck of this description, though a serious evil where it exists, is not such an evil as to affect the general trade. Only about 1,000, or from 1,000 to 2,000, of the 30,000 hosiery makers are under its influence. It deserves to be studied, because it is of a type—similar to that in the nail trade—which depends, not on protracted periods of payment, but on the impoverished condition of the hand workers, and on the difficulty they experience, in times of depression, of obtaining work. The personal influence acquired, in consequence, by the middlemen, especially, in the remoter districts, is considerable; and when they keep a shop (as is frequently the case), the workman is driven to deal there, lest, in slack times, he should be left without work.

The work is generally performed at the workman's own house, each being built with a small workshop that will contain four or five frames. This house and shop belong to the middlemen, from whom the workman rents it; the rent being worked out in labor and deducted from the wages. Once a week, the workman carries back to his middleman the completed work, and receives the price, according to an agreed price list fixed by the general trade. Some-

times, the men work at the middleman's or bayman's house, who has perhaps a large workshop, holding from 10 to 20 frames, which he will fill. And frequently, four or five workmen will club together and hire four or five frames, in a set, from the middleman; one of them being responsible to the middleman for the rent of the frames, and taking from the middleman the work both for himself and his fellow workers. The trucking middleman, who has sometimes as many as 100 hands working for him, keeps a little shop; sometimes, for flour only; sometimes, for other provisions, where his men are expected to deal; and the workman, having received his wages, spends a portion of them in discharging his score at the shop. Till of late years, the goods supplied to him during the week were entered, as a rule, in a shop book kept by the workman himself. The danger of supplying evidence for truck prosecutions, has led to the general discontinuance of these books, and the system is now usually conducted without their aid. They take the money from the warehouse or counting-house, where they reckon for the work done, and take it to the store, and pay it back. At times, even when a middleman does not keep a shop himself, he nevertheless pays in kind. He has not always ready money to give, and when this is the case, his men are obliged to take provisions. Not unfrequently, too, the middleman keeps a public house, where he pays his men. One instance was found, in which the work was given out in the kitchen of the public house; and the wages were paid by the mistress, who deducted, first, what was due for drink, and then handed over the balance. The personal pressure used to attract the workmen to the middleman's shop is of an intangible kind. They know that a time will come when trade is slack, and that they will then be at his mercy. "The general impression," as we were told by one knitter, "among the men is, that they must take flour or groceries, in order to be looked to in time of bad trade for work." In such times, a middleman will tell his men that he "looks to those who look to him." "The general feeling," said another, among the workmen is, that "if they work for a man, they ought to take goods at his shop."

Efforts have been made by Messrs Morley, Messrs Mundella and the leading manufacturers of Nottingham and elsewhere, to bring influence to bear on the middlemen, to put down truck. Both Mr. Hill and Mr. Mundella mentioned instances, where such interference had been successful. The board of arbitration has also done its best to put it down; but, as was pointed out by Mr. Mundella, "it is exceedingly difficult to obtain evidence or to obtain convictions. It costs the workmen a great deal of money, and the fine is small,

and has no deterrent effect. They go on with impunity." One truck master was fined £5 last year, before the magistrates, for truck; but, before the case came on, the arbitration board endeavored to mediate, and wished him to relinquish the practice. The chairman of the board meeting,—Mr. Hill,—gives the following account of what passed:—"We summoned Mr. Pickard before the board of arbitration. I was the chairman of the meeting, that day, and I put this question to him: 'Supposing the board of arbitration will give you a guarantee that they will withdraw the prosecution, will you make a promise that you will give up the truck system for the future?' His answer was in the negative. He said that he 'should continue as he had done;' so that there was no alternative but to let the prosecution go on."

RECENT STRIKE BY AGRICULTURAL LABORERS IN ENGLAND.

In speaking about strikes by workmen, we said that it required some degree, however small, of education and of thought, before combination could organize so as to effect a strike, and that such steps had never occurred among a thoroughly ignorant class of work-people, as, for example, among that most thoroughly ignorant class the English agricultural laborers. But from a recent "Boston Globe" we learn that, at last, a strike has occurred with them, and we give the Globe's account of it:—

AN EXCELLENT STRIKE FOR ONCE.

About one of the most pleasant items of news we have read for a long time in an English paper, is that the South Warwickshire agricultural laborers are meditating a strike. They should have done it generations ago; but better late than never. They demand sixteen shillings a week instead of twelve, and nine hours' work—a very modest demand, indeed—and have moreover, formed a union, the Hon. Auberon Herbert, the republican, in the chair. A joint letter was read, signed by Mr. Geo. Dixon, M. P. for Birmingham, Lord Fitzmaurice, Mr. Johnson, Mr. Mundella, Mr. A. H. Brown and Mr. Thomas Hughes, all M. Ps. The farmers are in a consternation. This discontent among the lowest class of English working men is so fully justified by facts that we hope it will continue. They have every advantage on their side. Unlike artisans who strike, they know that they can carry their labor across the seas to lands where there is a steady demand for farm workers. Unlike artisans, also, they can hardly be replaced; for the old influx of Irish labor into England has almost ceased. Hitherto three persons have made a living out of British soil: the landlord with his lion's share of rent; the farmer, and the laborer, with a miserable pittance in exchange for his toil. If the last-

named class combine firmly and with skill, it can compel a redistribution of the profits made by agriculture; rents must be lowered to enable the farmer to work his farm with new rates. There will be another effort as labor gets dear. Mechanical means of culture will be increasingly applied to land, so that the laborers required will be fewer, while more intelligent and more highly paid. Then will come as the natural resource of the surplus rural hands—steady emigration. Why should not English rustics organize parish or village clubs for that purpose? Amongst the Irish, family feeling makes this needless; but coöperation applied to migration beyond the seas would be the natural English remedy. In such a field many may emulate the English agricultural laborer's friend, Canon Gridlestone, by teaching the laborers to look for higher wages, and, if they are not obtainable in England, to seek them in Canada, the States, or Australia.

NOTE.—On page 115, quoted from the "Boston Daily Advertiser" of January 30, 1872, is this remark: "About 11,000 persons are in prison at any given time, on an average," in this State. Since that was in print, our attention has been called to the same subject by a member of the Board of State Charities, who informs us that all the prisons in Massachusetts together *will not accommodate half that number*, and that the total number of persons committed in any one year is but 11,000. Taking this greatly reduced number (say of 4,000), the cost of crime must be proportionally reduced. We early, but unsuccessfully, attempted to find the cost of crime, in all its ramifications, throughout the State. We were informed authoritatively that that cost could not be definitely ascertained.

BUREAU.

INDEX.

	Page
Accidents,	393, 421-431
“ a chapter of,	421-425
“ testimony of Operatives concerning,	426, 430, 431
“ “ Physicians,	427
Act to prevent monopoly and oppression, 1777,	506
“ establishing rates of coins,	506
“ regulating prices,	507
Adulteration of coin,	480
Agriculture,	21-47, 338, 339
“ divisions of,	15
“ employment of women and children in,	33
“ cause of decline in,	43
“ skilled labor in,	35
“ testimony on, Francis Dodge,	544-548
“ annual consumption of breadstuffs,	22
Agricultural implements,	188, 189
“ laborers, earnings of, in 1792-1796,	489, 490
“ “ strike of, in England,	579, 580
“ machinery,	34, 35
“ products, increase and decrease in,	23, 24
“ statistics,	22, 23, 24
“ “ how obtained,	31
Amherst Savings Bank,	305, 325
Andover “ “	305
“ visit of Bureau to,	354, 355
“ Flax mill at, description of,	354, 355
Apparel,	121-137
Athol Savings Bank,	305
Associations of consumption, in Germany, number of,	556
“ for purchase of raw material in Germany, number of,	556
“ for storage “ “ “	556
“ for production “ “ “	556
“ for machine and utensils, “ “ “	556
“ amount of capital,	556
“ members of, number of,	556
“ of working-men in Hungary,	566
Bake-shops,	72
Ballardvale, Flannel Factory at,	357
Barnstable Savings Bank,	305
Barre “ “	305
Beverly “ “	305
Blackstone, condition of the town of,	362
“ testimony of Dr. W. F. Kimball of,	362-367, 412-414
“ “ of an Operative of,	367, 368
“ visit of Bureau to,	352
“ Truck system in,	412-416

	Page
Blackstone, Mill, rules of,	352
Blanks described,	13, 14
" number of, sent and returned,	15-21
" replies to, voluntary,	7
Boats and Ships,	179
Bonnet bleacheries,	93
Bonnet-frame makers,	103
Book-clasps,	91
Book-keepers,	68
Boots and Shoes,	103, 104, 121-132
" " statements of manufacturers of,	130-132
" " increased capital required in manufacture of,	132
Boot Factory at New Bedford, visit of Bureau to,	345
Boston Home Savings Bank,	306
" East, " "	306
" South, " "	307
Brick-makers, statements of,	147
Brighton Savings Bank,	305
Britannia,	91
Bugle trimming,	76
Building trades, purchasing power of wages in,	493
Bureau, subjects investigated by,	9, 10
" letters of encouragement to,	6
" expenses of,	10, 11
" abolishment of,	7
" results of investigation of,	11, 12
" limited means of,	539
" establishment of, by National Government,	7
" visits of,	344-362
" report, application for,	6
" " should be a public document,	7
Buttons,	148
Button manufactory at Easthampton, visit of Bureau to,	346
Candle manufactory at New Bedford, visit of Bureau to,	344, 345
" " " " processes of manufacture described,	344, 345
Canton Savings Bank,	305
Cape Ann " "	305
Cap maker, testimony of in 1581,	484
Caps and Hats,	77, 78
Cardigan jackets,	78
Card clothing, statement of a manufacturer of,	196, 197
Carpenters,	181, 182, 183
" wages of, in 14th century,	479
" " of, in 15th and 18th centuries,	488
Carpenter, statement of,	288-290
Carpet bags,	91
" mill at Danvers, description of,	347, 348
Carriages,	207, 208
Cash girls,	69-71
Chairs,	94
Chances of life,	525
Change of occupations,	490
Cheap labor, demand for,	535

	Page
Cheap labor and China,	536
“ people are dearest,	536
Chemicals,	137-139
Chicopee Savings Bank,	305
Children, employment of,	33, 69, 71, 81, 94, 95, 98, 99, 100, 162, 163, 172, 272, 284, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 361
“ lives of, endangered,	351
“ under 10 employed in Lawrence,	443
“ “ “ “ in Uxbridge,	359
“ factory, schools for,	443-446
“ “ evening school at Lawrence for,	443, 444
“ “ school at New Bedford,	444, 445
“ “ half time school at Salem,	445, 446
“ “ “ “ “ for	205, 206, 453-462
“ school for, near Hoosac Tunnel,	347
“ unschooled, number of, in the State,	467, 468
“ “ “ “ “ United States,	451
“ earnings of, needed in supporting the family,	99, 100
“ destitute, in London,	487
“ of the poor taken from school,	532
“ argument for the education of,	446-468
China decorators,	91
Chinese labor,	351, 352, 401-409
“ “ interview of Bureau with Mr. Sampson on,	402, 405
“ “ Mr. Sampson declines giving information concerning,	405
“ “ letter of Bureau to Mr. Sampson concerning,	406
“ “ replies and returns from Mr. Sampson concerning,	406, 407, 408
Classification of employments,	15-21
“ of expenditures of workmen in England,	493, 494
Clergymen, salary of, in 1631, how paid,	503
Clothing,	72-90
“ bed,	73
“ boys',	74
“ dolls',	79
“ infants' and ladies',	82
“ men's,	83-87
“ establishment in Boston, visit of Bureau to,	344
Coinage of money, 1650, 1688,	504
Coincidence of annual expenses,	523
“ of averages of former reports,	523, 524
Collars, linen,	82
“ paper,	88
Combs,	148
Comfortables,	73
Comparison of earnings and cost of living, 1830-1860,	517, 518
Competence, possibility of acquiring a,	524, 525, 528, 529
“ number of years necessary to acquire a,	525
Conclusions and recommendations,	538-541
Confectionery saloons,	72
Consultations on, cost of living,	533
Consumption of food, Dr. Edward Smith,	498
Contrast between the laborer of 300 years ago and the present day,	534
Cooks,	64
Coöperative associations in Germany,	548-557

	Page
Coöperative associations, origin of,	548, 549
“ “ description of,	549
“ “ central bureau of,	551
“ “ credit of,	552
“ “ table of,	550
“ “ at Westfield,	142-144
“ establishment, strike against a,	143, 144
“ cigar-makers, statement of the,	142-144
“ “ “ a joint stock company,	139
Coöperation, the people too poor for,	537
“ how it will come,	537
“ the education necessary for,	537
Corsets,	78
Cost of clothing in Massachusetts, 1631,	502
“ living,	251-257, 343, 474, 477-480, 505-508, 511-513
“ “ method of obtaining,	251, 252
“ “ tables of,	253-257, 509, 514, 515, 516, 517, 519, 520
“ “ in 1300,	475
“ “ in 1688,	486
“ “ in 1777,	508
“ “ of carpenters,	521, 522
“ “ of “ for 8 years,	522
“ “ of family of two to seven persons,	526, 527
“ “ of an English spinner,	494
“ “ of an “ weaver,	495
“ “ of “ laboring men, 1871,	496, 497
“ “ consultations on,	533
“ “ sources of information for,	509, 533
“ “ examples of, from first report,	527
“ “ by Edward Young, Bureau of Statistics, Washington,	533
Cotton and print cloths,	94-96, 162-169
“ “ “ “ statements of manufacturers of,	168
“ factories, visits of Bureau to,	348, 349, 351
Crime, cost of,	115, 116, 580
Crispin, Daughters of, strike of,	436, 437
Cutlery,	187, 342
“ establishment at Shelburne Falls,	360
“ “ at Turner's “	359, 360
“ “ appearance of the men at,	360
Dairies, increase of large,	36, 37
Dalton, visit of Bureau to,	356
Danvers, Savings Bank at,	305
“ strike at, testimony on,	432-434
“ tenement houses in,	442, 443
“ carpet company, visit of Bureau to,	347, 348
“ “ “ testimony of a spinner at,	388-394
“ “ “ “ of treasurer,	394, 395
“ “ “ “ of operatives of,	395-400
Dear labor and America,	536
Dedham Savings Bank,	305
Division of labor,	15-21
Dodge, Francis, testimony of,	544-548
Domestics,	340

	Page
Domestic labor and woman's work,	59-118
" " " " " description of blanks used for, . . .	60, 61, 62
" " " " " how averages to tables of, were obtained, . . .	63
" " " " " extracts from returns of,	105-108
" " " " " testimony of operatives on,	108-111
" " " " " remarks of Bureau on,	112-118
Dress and cloak making,	79
Dress trimmings,	80
Drinking in England, cost of,	494
" the result of long hours, etc.,	494
Earnings for 1800,	514
" actual, how obtained,	14, 529
" of American workmen, 1870,	520
" comparison of,	477
" of mechanics from 9th to 15th centuries,	478, 479
" of farm laborers in 1603,	485
" of factory operatives,	504
" and expenses of laborers, 1792-1796,	489, 490
" " " in building trades, 1871,	495, 496
" of working classes in England, by Leone Levi,	493
" and cost of living in Massachusetts in 1630,	500
Easthampton, visit of Bureau to,	346, 349, 350
" elastic and rubber thread works at,	353
" school law observed at,	353
Education,	446-468
" compulsory needed,	447, 448, 450
" legislation on, demanded,	448, 450, 454, 455
" adds to economic value,	448, 449, 464
" a judicial right of the State	449
" poverty of the parents a bar to it,	450
" in Prussia and Germany,	451, 558-565
" neglect of, perilous to the State,	451, 452
" difficulties in the way of,	452-454
" true, what is it?	462, 463
" the right of every child,	464
" more time for, less for toil,	465
" influence of,	469
" " of, upon the distribution of wealth,	533, 534
" distribution of,	534
" " of, further,	537
" augmenting cost of living,	499
Educational statistics,	466-468
Effects of the plague of 1350,	476
Eight hours, recommendations for,	540
Employments classified,	15-21
Employers, statements of, agricultural implement maker,	190, 191
" " bobbin and spool manufacturer,	197
" " boot manufacturers,	130-132
" " brick maker,	147
" " card clothing manufacturer,	196
" " cigar makers,	142-145
" " cotton-gin manufacturer,	196
" " cotton and print cloth manufacturer,	168

	Page
Employers, statements of cutlery manufacturer,	190
“ “ glass “	147
“ “ granite workers,	147, 148
“ “ iron founder,	201, 202
“ “ iron wire manufacturer,	202
“ “ last “	212, 213
“ “ leather “	154
“ “ lumber dealer,	213, 214
“ “ machine builders,	197
“ “ nitro-glycerine manufacturer,	139
“ “ paper “	158
“ “ philosophical instrument maker,	190
“ “ printing company,	162
“ “ sewing-machine builder,	196
“ “ steam-boiler and engine builder,	197
“ “ tack company,	205
“ “ tailor,	136, 137
“ “ tanners,	154, 155
“ “ vise builder,	190, 191
“ “ woollen manufacturer,	178
“ “ on hours of labor,	219-224, 225-240
England and Massachusetts changing to a manufacturing people,	492
“ purchasing power of wages in,	469-500
English laborers, condition of in 1300,	473, 474
“ “ food of,	478, 480
“ “ necessities of, only considered,	479
“ villeins, strike of,	481
“ “ cause of the outbreak among, 1381,	476
“ investigation, thoroughness of,	7
Extract from Frazer's Magazine,	472
Exposure of tenement houses,	538
Factory labor, effects of,	428-431
“ law, recommendations for,	540
Factories, cotton,	162-169
“ “ limited number of returns from,	162
“ “ proportion of women and children in,	162
“ “ illiteracy of the operatives in,	163
“ “ statements of manufacturers of,	168
“ woollen,	172-178
“ “ excess of the foreign element in,	172
“ “ facts concerning, withheld,	172
“ “ accidents in, not reported,	173
“ “ statements of manufacturers,	178
Fancy articles,	91-93, 148-150
Fans,	91
Farms, decreased value of,	24
“ increased taxes on,	29
“ increase of large dairies on,	36, 37
“ not safe investments for small capitalists,	45
“ changes in kind of crops on,	35, 36
Farming for fashion,	46
“ increase of capital required for,	38, 546
“ improved methods of,	39, 40

	Page
Farming, profits of, diminished,	544
“ machinery in,	34
Farmer, a wealthy, experiment of,	42, 43
Farmers discouraged,	40, 41
“ seeking other occupations,	545
“ testimony of,	26-29, 35-41
“ “ of Francis Dodge,	544
“ experience of,	547
“ conclusions warranted from returns of,	44-47
Farm laborers, condition of,	338, 339
“ “ cost and inefficiency of,	25, 27, 29, 545, 548
“ “ chiefly foreign,	26, 28, 33, 545
“ “ effect of foreign,	34
“ “ wages of,	26, 32
“ “ growing dissatisfaction among,	31
“ “ relative proportion of different nationalities,	33
“ “ education of,	34
“ “ condition of, in 14th century,	476, 477, 478
“ “ wages of, in 15th “	488
Fire-arms,	188, 189, 191
Fisheries,	47-55
“ subdivisions of,	15
“ table of shares, earnings, etc.	48, 49
“ wage and share system in,	50
“ mackerel, in Wellfleet,	51, 52
“ the share system in, as exhibited in Wellfleet,	52, 53
Fishermen, condition of,	339
“ peculiarities of,	55
Florence, visit of Bureau to,	348
Food and drink,	139-145
Foundries,	198
French operatives,	369, 372, 373, 375, 376-379
Furniture,	184-187
Furs,	81
Glass manufacture,	147
Gloves and mittens,	81
Goldleaf and foil,	92
Grain as a currency,	505
Granite workers, statements of,	147, 148
Great Barrington Savings Bank,	306
Groveland “ “	306
“ mills at,	357, 358
Hack and omnibus drivers, number of,	58
Half-time schools,	453-462
“ “ urged,	205, 206
“ “ recommended,	540
“ “ resolve relating to,	455
“ “ opinion of Miss Carpenter of London on,	454
“ “ what are they?	457
“ “ English system of,	459, 460
“ “ methods of, in Massachusetts,	460-462
Hallam's History of Europe, extracts from,	477, 478
Haydenville, visit of Bureau to,	349

	Page
Hides and leather,	151-155
Hingham Savings Bank,	306
Holyoke " "	306
" visit of Bureau to,	347
Homes of the working classes,	212, 213, 437-443
" " " " a vivid picture of the	437
" " " " description of, at Hoosac Mountain,	439, 440
" " " " testimony of State paymaster concerning,	440, 441
" " " " responsibility of the State for,	439
Hoop Skirts,	81
Hoosac Tunnel,	346
" " system of payments at,	346
" " description of tenements at,	439-441
" " contract of the State with the Shanly brothers at,	441
Hopkinton Savings Bank,	306
Hotel work,	67
House building,	181-184
" work,	63-66
Hours of labor,	217-251
" in 1670,	505
" shortening of, Leone Levi,	493
" " of, in England,	498
" form of blank on,	218
" failure of manufacturers to respond to blank,	218
" return of Rubber Thread Company upon,	218, 219
" statements of employers concerning,	219-224, 225-240
" statement of a lumber dealer concerning,	219, 220
" " of a rigger "	220
" " of a chair manufacturer "	220, 222
" reduction of, has not diminished production,	221, 222, 229, 343
" further reduction of, not beneficial,	221
" ten hours is the true standard,	222
" statement of a hardware manufacturer concerning,	222
" longer working time less dissipation,	222, 234
" statement of a shoe manufacturer,	223
" " of the American Twist Drill Company,	223
" reduction of, increased production,	223, 224, 230
" further reduction of, desirable,	223
" statement of a Batting Company,	224
" obvious conclusions of Bureau from statements on,	225
" reduction of, not a reduction of wages,	539
" statement of employers that favor ten hours,	225-232
" increase in wages followed reduction of,	228, 230, 232, 242
" general ten-hour system desired,	228, 229
" reduction of, diminished production,	231, 233
" legislation on, injurious to the laborer,	233, 234
" statement of employers that favor longer,	233-240
" summary of testimony on,	240
" statements by workingmen concerning,	241
" the longest, the least pay,	241
" reduction of, the first step,	241, 242
" labor-saving machinery ought to reduce the,	244
" practical working of the eight-hour law,	244-248
" how will labor improve leisure?	245

	Page
Hours of labor, the highest wages, the shortest,	343
“ testimony of an employer on,	373
“ of bakers and confectioners,	72, 140
“ bed-clothing makers,	74
“ bleachers,	93
“ boat and ship builders,	179, 180
“ boys' clothing makers,	75
“ boot and shoe makers,	107, 121, 122-125
“ book-keepers,	68, 260
“ brewers,	139, 140
“ bugle-trimming makers,	76, 77
“ cap and hat makers,	77
“ carpet weavers,	101, 108
“ chair makers,	94, 107
“ cigar makers,	139, 140
“ corset makers,	78
“ cotton and print cloth establishments,	162, 164, 165
“ dolls' clothing makers,	79
“ domestics,	64, 67
“ dress and cloak makers,	80
“ dress trimmings,	80, 99
“ electro and stereotypers,	160
“ fancy articles,	91, 92, 148, 149
“ farmers and farm-laborers,	26, 31, 33, 45
“ fishermen,	51
“ flour and meal works,	140
“ foundrymen,	198, 199, 201
“ furniture makers,	184, 185, 187
“ fur sewers,	81
“ gas workers,	137, 138
“ glass workers,	145
“ hack and omnibus drivers,	58
“ hide and leather workers,	151, 152, 154
“ hoop skirt makers,	81
“ hosiery knitters,	133
“ house builders,	181, 182
“ implement makers,	188
“ jewelry makers,	93
“ laundresses,	134
“ linen collar makers,	82
“ lime-kiln workers,	145
“ lithographers,	160
“ machinists,	191, 192, 193
“ match makers,	96
“ men's clothing makers,	83, 86, 87, 106, 132
“ metal workers,	203, 205
“ milliners,	87
“ mineral workers,	146
“ miscellaneous employments,	215, 217
“ “ textiles,	169, 170, 172
“ nitro-glycerine,	137, 138
“ oilcloth makers,	97
“ paper collar makers,	88
“ “ mill operatives,	97, 155, 156

	Page
Hours of labor of printers,	105, 159
“ quarrymen,	145
“ rattan makers,	98
“ rosette maker,	105
“ saleswomen,	68
“ shirt makers,	89, 108
“ silk “	98
“ spice and coffee packers,	140
“ stevedores,	56
“ straw workers,	90
“ store and saloon employées,	72
“ sugar refiners,	140
“ suspender makers,	98
“ teamsters,	58
“ twine and cordage makers,	98, 99
“ vehicle builders,	206
“ woolen factory operatives,	100, 172, 173, 174, 175
“ wood workers,	209, 210
Hours, Eight, in Australia,	247, 248
“ the agitation on, commenced by stone masons,	247
“ the national law, “	248
“ “ “ “ statement of the N. Y. Tribune on,	249
“ “ “ “ resolution of inquiry on, by Hon. G. F. Hoar,	250
Hyannis Savings Bank,	306
Illiteracy,	181, 449
Implements,	187-191
Importance of the labor question,	6
Intemperance,	272, 365
Introduction,	6
Investigation the right and duty of the State,	8, 9
Iron works,	361
“ Richmond, low wages and long hours at,	361
“ “ employées constantly in debt,	361
Jewelry,	92, 93, 143
Jute and flax mill at Salem, visit of Bureau to,	353, 354
“ “ “ at Andover,	354, 355
King's “Incomes of Families in England,”	486
Kitchen girls,	65
Knitter, statement of a,	287, 288
Labor, Chinese,	351, 352, 401-409
“ and capital to become partners,	6
“ skilled, no longer a requisite,	341, 342
“ question, interest in the present agitation of,	6
“ “ importance of,	6
Land travel, etc.,	15, 56
Lasts, statement of a manufacturer of,	212, 213
Laundries,	96
Lawrence, evening school at,	443, 444
Leeds, visit of Bureau to,	355
Legislation demanded,	410, 422, 448

	Page
Legislation, nature of, demanded,	539, 540
Leone Levi on earnings of working classes,	493
“ “ on shortening the hours of labor,	493
“ “ on classification of expenditures of workingmen,	493, 494
“ “ on cause and cost of drinking,	494
Letter from a working man,	420
Life insurance,	525
Lithographing,	159
Lowell City Savings Institution,	305
“ Savings Bank,	305
Lowest paid the hardest worked,	538
Lumber dealer,	213, 214
Machinists, statements of,	272, 277, 282, 283, 286, 287, 290, 291, 292
“ “ on hours of labor,	272, 277, 283, 287, 291
Machinery,	191-196
“ unprotected,	351, 353, 355, 357, 421
“ “ English system suggested for,	421
Machine operator, statement of,	285, 286
Manufactories,	72-101
Marlborough Savings Bank,	306
Masons,	182, 183
“ wages of, 14th century,	479
“ “ 15th and 18th centuries,	408
Matches,	96
Matrons,	67
Mechanics able to obtain luxuries,	533
Metal-work,	198-206
Milliners,	87
Minerals,	145-148
Mining,	346, 347
Miscellaneous employments,	101-105, 214
Nantucket Savings Bank,	306
Neckties,	87
New Bedford Savings Bank,	306
“ “ factory school,	444, 445
“ “ visit of Bureau to,	344, 345
Newburyport Savings Bank,	306
Nitro-glycerine, remarks of a manufacturer of,	139
North Adams, visit of Bureau to,	346, 347, 351, 401-405
“ “ Savings Bank,	307
North Andover, shawl manufactory at	356
“ “ visit of Bureau to,	356
North Bridgewater Savings Bank,	307
Note, cost of crime,	580
Nursery girls,	64
Nurses,	68
Occupations, change of,	490
Oil-cloth Manufactory, reduced hours in,	97
Operatives, statements of,	271, 367, 368, 395-400
Operative life,	362-409
“ “ comparative view of English and American,	398, 399

	Page
Operative life, testimony on,	367, 368, 426, 430, 431, 432, 433
Overseers, statements of,	270, 280, 281
Paper collars,	88
“ mills, visit of Bureau to,	346
Papier-maché and passepartout,	91
Perfumery,	92
Pesth, Hungary, industrial evening school in,	568
“ “ lodging-houses in,	567
“ “ National Museum of Industry in,	568
“ “ wages in,	567
Pittsfield, visit of Bureau to,	350, 351
Plasterer, statement of a,	278, 279
Plymouth Savings Bank,	307
Political power, distribution of,	534
Popular banks in Germany, annual account of,	553
“ “ number of members of,	555
“ “ classification of members of,	557
“ “ table of results of,	554
“ “ “ of averages,	555
Portfolios,	92
Poverty of the wage laborer,	468, 532
“ of the working classes,	538, 539
“ of the unskilled laborers,	534, 535
“ the cause of limited production,	535
Prices in 1300,	474
“ from 1642-1694,	505
“ in 1697,	506
“ in 1780,	508
“ 16th century,	480
“ 15th “	484
“ 14th “ comparison of,	477, 478
“ of provisions in 1780-1870,	511
“ of fuel in 1780-1870,	513
“ of cloth and clothing in 1780-1870,	512
“ of food, 1780,	506, 507
“ of labor, 1777,	506
Printing,	104, 159-162
Print-works,	162, 348, 351
Professional,	101
Prosperous condition of the trades,	471
Provincetown Savings Bank,	307
Purchasing power of wages,	468-529
Rattan,	97
Real estate, value of, owned by workmen,	264
Recapitulation of Statistics, Part I.,	338-344
Recommendations and conclusions,	538-541
Recommendation for eight hours,	540
“ for a factory law,	540
“ for Half-Time Schools,	540
“ for a system of statistics,	540
Sailors,	339
Salem, India Manufacturing Company at,	353

	Page
Salem, India Manufacturing Company at, machinery of, protected,	354
“ Savings Banks,	307
“ tenements in,	443
“ visit of Bureau to,	443
Saleswomen,	68, 69
Salisbury Savings Bank,	307
Saloons,	72
Savings Banks,	293-338
“ “ origin and intent of,	293
“ “ the oldest, in the Commonwealth,	294
“ “ petition for its incorporation,	294
“ “ reports of Commissioners on, extracts from, 293, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 303, 337	
“ “ deposits in, not the savings of labor,	295
“ “ addresses of Governor Claflin on, extracts from,	299
“ “ the deposits in, condition of wage laborers not indicated by, 277, 299, 539	
“ “ want of system in,	301
“ “ carelessness of accounts in,	302
“ “ how managed,	303
“ “ blank on, returns to,	304
“ “ tables concerning,	305-312, 314-316
“ “ computations from tables and reports on, . 313, 316, 317, 318, 320, 325, 327, 328	
“ “ amount deposited in, by wage laborers, . 312, 313, 317, 318, 320, 321	
“ “ returns from, extracts from,	320, 324
“ “ withdrawals from,	321
“ “ “ in Great Britain,	322
“ “ loans in,	321
“ “ “ Lynn Five Cent, number of,	323
“ “ length of time required to accumulate \$1,000,	321
“ “ Commissioners of, recommendations of,	322
“ “ Boston Five Cent, return of,	324, 325
“ “ Amherst, account of depositors in,	325
“ “ Lowell Five Cent,	326-329
“ “ Greenfield,	330
“ “ Essex, Letter of Treasurer of,	330, 331
“ “ “ result of computations on,	331, 332
“ “ remarks and conclusions on,	332-338
“ “ the depositors in, mainly wage laborers,	332
“ “ the deposits mainly the profits of capital,	332
“ “ statement of a journeyman carpenter concerning,	332, 333
“ “ impossibility of large investments in, by wage laborers,	333, 334
“ “ tables on, results of, substantiated,	334-336
“ “ method of depositing large sums in,	334, 335
“ “ testimony of workingmen on,	335, 336
“ “ classification of depositors in, recommended,	337
Savings of workmen,	265
School near Hoosac Tunnel,	347
“ French, at Southbridge,	372, 381, 382
“ law disregarded,	446, 456
“ necessity for enforcement of, argued,	446-452
“ difficulties in the way of enforcement of, to be overcome,	452
“ Lawrence Evening,	443, 444
“ New Bedford Factory,	441, 445

	Page
School, Salem Half-Time,	445, 446, 461, 463
“ Indian Orchard Half-Time,	461, 462
“ Fall River Factory,	460, 461
Schools for factory children,	443-446
“ half-time,	455-466
“ “ recommended,	540
“ in Prussia,	558-565
“ “ system of compulsion in,	559
“ in Germany, classes of public,	560
“ “ classification of,	560, 561
“ “ branches taught,	561, 562
“ “ industrial,	562
“ “ “ studies and methods of,	563
“ Industrial, Geneva, Mülhouse, Rheims, Meisen,	564
“ “ in Pesth,	568
“ Frobel's Kindergarten,	464, 465
Seamstresses,	65
Sewing Machine Company at Florence,	360
Shelburne Falls Savings Bank,	307
“ “ cutlery establishment at,	360
Shirts,	89
Ship-building, independence of workmen in the trade of,	342
Shoe-cutter, statement of, on the hours of labor,	271, 275
Shoemaker, “ “ “	291
Shoe-stitchers, strike of, at Lynn,	434-436
Shoe machine operators at Stoneham,	436, 437
Shop against home,	82, 118
Silk,	98, 196
Smith, Dr. Edward, estimated cost of living by,	492, 493
Sources of information on cost of living,	533
Southbridge, Ballard mill at,	353
“ visit of Bureau to,	353
“ Savings Bank,	307
“ testimony on general condition of employés in,	368-388
“ “ of A. J. Bartholomew of,	368-373
“ “ an employer,	373-379
“ “ a builder,	380-382
“ “ a mill-agent,	382-385
“ “ a physician,	385-388
“ Truck system in,	416-420
Spinner, English, cost of living of an, 1870,	494
Springfield Savings Bank,	307
Stevedores,	56-58
“ Trade-Union of,	57
Strikes,	431-437
“ testimony on,	373-379
Strike of agricultural laborers in England,	579, 580
“ at Danvers Carpet Factory, testimony on,	432-434
“ at Lynn of shoe-stitchers,	434-436
“ at Stoneham, of shoe machine operators,	436, 437
“ of Jack Cade, 1450,	481
Sundries, significance of,	533
Suspenders,	98

	Page
Table-girls,	64
Tables of actual wages and earnings,	530, 531
“ agricultural,	22, 23, 25
“ of annual expenses of family,	526
“ averages of, how obtained,	14, 63
“ explanations of,	14
“ of wages, etc. agriculture,	32
“ “ bed clothing,	74
“ “ bleacheries,	94
“ “ boots and shoes,	104, 122-129
“ “ boys' clothing,	75
“ “ bugle trimming,	76, 77
“ “ chemicals,	138
“ “ cotton and print goods,	164-167
“ “ dress and cloak making,	80
“ “ fancy articles,	149, 150
“ “ fisheries,	48, 49
“ “ food and drink,	140-142
“ “ furniture,	185-187
“ “ hides and leather,	152, 153
“ “ house building,	182-184
“ “ house work,	66
“ “ hotel work,	67
“ “ implements,	188, 189
“ “ jewelry,	93
“ “ machinery,	192-195
“ “ men's clothing,	85, 86, 87
“ “ metal work,	199-201, 203-205
“ “ minerals,	146
“ “ miscellaneous apparel,	134, 135
“ “ “ employments,	102, 103, 215, 217
“ “ “ textiles,	170-172
“ “ paper,	156-158
“ “ printing,	105, 160, 161
“ “ ship-building,	180
“ “ shirts,	89
“ “ store and saloon work,	71, 72
“ “ straw goods,	90
“ “ teachers, etc.	101
“ “ vehicles,	207, 208
“ “ woollen goods,	174-177
“ “ wood work,	210-212
“ cost of living, wages, earnings, etc.	253-257
“ “ by items,	262, 263
“ “	521, 522, 523, 508
“ earnings in 1350	475
“ “ and expenses 1792,	490
“ “ and prices 18th century,	488
“ hours of labor and purchasing power of wages in England,	498
“ occupations, nationalities, etc.	260, 261
“ prices, 1777,	507
“ “ 1780 to 1870,	510-513
“ groceries, price of,	510
“ returns,	13

	Page
Tables of Savings Banks, deposits, sex, etc.	305-309
“ “ “ occupations of depositors,	310-312
“ “ “ deposits between \$1 and \$1,000,	314-316
“ “ “ number of depositors between \$5 and \$1,000,	319, 320
“ savings of workmen,	265
“ value of real estate of workmen,	264
“ wages 1830-1860,	516
“ “ 1863, 1864,	518
Tacks and nails,	203, 204, 206
Tassels,	99
Teachers,	101
Teamsters,	58
Tenement houses,	279, 348, 361, 364, 437-443
“ “ testimony on,	440-443
Tenements crowded in London,	497
Ten hours Act in England,	457
Testimony on accidents,	426-431
“ on agriculture,	548
“ on Chinese labor,	402-409
“ on general condition of employés,	362-401
“ on homes of the working classes,	440
“ on strikes,	432-433
“ on tenement houses,	440-443
“ on truck system,	412-420
Thread mill at Holyoke,	350
Tin plate worker, statement of,	270
Trades' union of stevedores,	57
Truck system,	7, 8, 409-421
“ “ described by an employer,	410-412
“ “ testimony on,	412-420
“ “ letter from a workingman,	420, 421
“ “ remarks of Bureau concerning,	421
“ “ in England,	568
“ “ “ early enactments against,	569
“ “ “ condition of workmen under,	570
“ “ “ results of,	571, 572
“ “ “ moral effects of,	573
“ “ “ Messrs Morley and Mundella opposed to,	578
Turner's Falls, visit to,	359, 362
Twine and cordage,	98
Type foundry,	159
Uxbridge Savings Bank,	308
“ visit to,	359
Vehicles,	205, 209
Ventilation of mills disregarded,	350, 356
Villeinage,	373, 374
Visits of Bureau,	344, 362
Wages, by what determined,	353, 468
“ of half time children,	460-462
“ low, and ignorance go hand in hand,	465
“ purchasing power of,	468

	Page
Wages, purchasing power of, in England,	469-500
“ “ “ in Massachusetts,	500
“ statutes of, enacted, 1496,	482, 505
“ comparison of,	477
“ paid in peltry and grain,	503
“ in England 1300,	474
“ “ 1495,	484
“ “ 1593,	485
“ “ 1688,	486
“ Massachusetts, 1780 to 1870,	513
“ “ 1800,	514
“ “ 1830-1860,	516
“ Pesth,	567
Wages (see also <i>Tables</i>).	
Wages of cap and hat makers,	77, 135
“ Cardigan jacket makers,	78
“ carpet weavers,	101
“ chair makers,	94
“ corset makers,	78
“ collar makers (linen),	82
“ “ “ (paper),	88, 216
“ dolls' clothing makers,	79
“ dress trimming makers,	80
“ elastic and rubber goods,	169
“ fancy article employés,	91, 92, 150
“ fur sewers,	81
“ glove and mitten makers,	88
“ hack and omnibus drivers,	58
“ hoop-skirt makers,	81
“ infants' and ladies' clothing makers,	82
“ laundresses,	96, 135
“ lithographers,	159
“ matrons,	67
“ match makers,	96
“ milliners,	87
“ necktie makers,	88
“ nurses,	68
“ oil-cloth makers,	97
“ rattan workers,	97
“ rosette makers,	105
“ stewardesses,	67
“ stevedores,	56
“ suspender makers,	98
“ tassel makers,	99
“ teamsters,	58
Wage laborers, condition of,	338-344
“ “ average earnings of,	341
“ “ relative comfort of, in different periods,	482
“ “ increased demand upon,	483
“ “ in Prussia, condition of,	559
Waltham Savings Bank,	307
Ware “ “	307
Wareham “ “	307
Wat Tyler, insurrection of,	476, 481

	Page
Weaver, English, cost of living of,	495
Wellfleet Savings Bank,	307
Westfield, Coöperative Cigar-makers' Association at,	142-144
" Savings Bank,	307
Weymouth " "	308
" South, Savings Bank,	308
Wire goods,	205
Woburn Savings Bank,	308
Wood pulp mill, description of,	362
" work,	209-214
Woollen mills,	99, 172-178, 357
Woman's work,	59-118
" " and wages, remarks on,	112-118
" low wages, natural result of,	84, 115
" employments, variety of, increasing,	112
" degradation of, in Europe,	113
" danger of similar results in this country,	113
" question, the wage question,	114
" by right, the ballot,	114
" low wage a cause of crime,	115
" as a wage-laborer, obstacles to the success of,	117, 118
" lack of motive,	117
Women, working, low pay and uncertain employments of,	73, 88
" " privations of,	78
" " work-rooms of, difficult of access,	83
" " without proper accommodations,	76, 77, 83, 94
" " miscellaneous employments of,	101-105
" " competition of shop with home,	82, 114
" " boarding-houses of, sanitary condition of,	88, 95
" " strike of, against reduction of wages,	434-436
" " resolutions concerning,	435
" " for an increase of wages,	436, 437
" " statements of employers concerning,	105, 108
Worcester Savings Bank,	307, 308
Working-classes in Hungary, education of,	567
" men " associations of,	566

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